

OUTLINE OF GOVERNMENTS



A linoleum cut by Bertrand Zadig

JEAN JACQUES ROUSSEAU

Father of Modern Democracy

OUTLINE OF GOVERNMENTS

HISTORY · CIVICS
ECONOMICS
MEN

BY ROGER SHAW

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TO A.S. AND M.E.H.

CONTENTS

	PAGE
INTRODUCTION	
WORLD ORGANIZATIONS—I	3
WORLD ORGANIZATIONS—II	7
VANISHING MONARCHS	12
DEMOCRACY VERSUS DICTATORSHIP	16
PROPORTIONAL REPRESENTATION	21
WORLD LANGUAGES	25
RELIGION AND ANTI-RELIGION	28
MILESTONES TO NATIONHOOD	33
NORTH AMERICA	
UNITED STATES	39
CANADA	47
NEWFOUNDLAND	49
MEXICO	50
CUBA	53
WEST INDIAN STATES	55
CENTRAL AMERICAN STATES	57
SOUTH AMERICA	
ARGENTINA	65
BRAZIL	67
CHILE	69

	PAGE
PERU	72
URUGUAY	74
VENEZUELA	75
COLOMBIA	77
BOLIVIA	79
ECUADOR	80
PARAGUAY	82

EUROPE

ENGLAND	87
FRANCE	92
GERMANY	96
GERMAN MINORITIES	102
ITALY	107
POLAND	112
SPAIN	114
RUSSIA	117
HOLLAND	122
BELGIUM	125
SWITZERLAND	127
IRISH FREE STATE	129
PORTUGAL	131
NORWAY	132
SWEDEN	134
DENMARK	136
FINLAND	138
BALTIC STATES	139
AUSTRIA	142
CZECHOSLOVAKIA	144
HUNGARY	147
JUGOSLAVIA	149

	PAGE
RUMANIA	151
BULGARIA	153
GREECE	155
ALBANIA	157
DANZIG	158
VATICAN	160
LUXEMBURG	161
MONACO	162
LIECHTENSTEIN	163
SAN MARINO	164
ANDORRA	165
ICELAND	167

ASIA

JAPAN	171
CHINA	175
MANCHUKUO	179
INDIA	181
AFGHANISTAN	185
SIAM	186
TURKEY	187
PERSIA	189
IRAQ	191
ARABIAN STATES	192
NEPAL	194
BHUTAN	195

AFRICA

EGYPT	199
ABYSSINIA	200
LIBERIA	201

	PAGE
SOUTH AFRICAN UNION	203
SOUTHERN RHODESIA	204

THE ANTIPODES

AUSTRALIA	209
NEW ZEALAND	211

INTRODUCTION

WORLD ORGANIZATIONS—I

THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS was founded by Woodrow Wilson and the victorious Allies in 1919, and its provisions were closely interwoven with the terms of the peace treaties which marked the final close of the World War. The object of the League is to secure international peace and harmony, and it was hoped at its inception that all nations would eventually become member-states. Headquarters are situated at Geneva, chief city of the Protestant reformation and of other world-wide reform movements, in Switzerland where Germans, French, and Italians live together in perfect accord. The League is more than an organization. It embodies an ideal to strive for.

There is a permanent League secretariat of paid officials, under a secretary-general and lesser officers and department heads. The League is financed by membership dues, and \$6,000,000 is perhaps an average annual expenditure for its diversified activities. The League Council contains the permanent representatives of England, France, and Italy; and the non-permanent representatives of nine elected states, of which one generally belongs to the Little Entente (Czechoslovakia, Rumania, Jugoslavia), one comes from the New World, and one from the Orient. The Council serves as a parliamentary upper house.

The lower house of the League is the Assembly, in which all member-states have from one to three delegates. Each state has one vote. The Assembly meets annually in September, while the Council holds its sessions four times each year. The Assembly indulges in frequent debates and discussions, in parliamentary style, and the higher Council is endowed with certain executive functions. The Council, in order to act, must be unanimous and of one mind. It has, within its powers, the legal right to coerce recalcitrant and aggressive nations by boycott, economic blockade, or armed intervention. Mediation in international disputes is a special League objective, and in its brief history a number of minor wars have been prevented.

The United States has never joined the League; for the Senate defeated Woodrow Wilson's project in 1920, in the belief that League intervention and regulatory clauses would constitute an entangling alliance prejudicial to American national rights. Japan withdrew from the League in 1933, because of strong opposition in Geneva to the Japanese Manchurian adventure which was contrary to the historic claims of China. Germany did not join until 1926.

In 1933 Germany, under the leadership of Adolf Hitler, left the League and its disarmament conference because German claims to arms equality were deferred to the exasperation of an impatient Reich. Russia, which sponsors the rival Third International, never joined at Geneva; and Brazil and Argentina have withdrawn from League activities in the past few years. Both America and Russia have coöperated with the League of Nations in conferences and on committees,

which range from arms to white slavery, and from boundaries to labor questions.

The League is responsible for the city of Danzig, the Saar mining area, and those former German and Turkish colonies which have been "farmed-out" to various nations as mandates under trusteeship, to be liberally governed, free from exploitation. Racial and religious minorities within the new post-war states are also kept under League protection, which is supposed to insure democratic toleration and cultural freedom. Mandates and minorities, in theory, are well cared for and thoroughly protected from oppression. Poland, Czechoslovakia, Yugoslavia, Rumania, Finland, Hungary, Austria, and the Baltic states are the main powers under minority supervision; while England, France, Japan, South Africa, New Zealand, and Australia are nations with colonial mandates. The United States was offered Armenia as a mandate, but refused the charge.

League of Nations membership varies, but there are 55 nations which now belong—including India and the British dominions. War, peace, arbitration, health, sanitation, morals, armaments, and administration are included in League activities; and there is an important international labor bureau, dealing with hours, wages, working conditions, and hygiene, to compete with the proletarian Third International of Moscow. The great congregation of experts who man the League committees are a cross-index of the brains of the world, as applied to its practical problems. These experts are not for themselves or for their native countries. They are for humanity.

The fundamental weakness of the League consists in

the practical difficulties which prevent it from adequately enforcing its decisions. Its rules are not binding in the face of petty national rivalries, and League commands must perforce be made in the tone of halting requests. As in America before 1865, there is too much states' rights in the League organization, and too spineless a central authority. Furthermore, a League without America, Russia, Germany, Japan, and Brazil is bereft of influence over very large world areas. The principles on which the League rests are just and eminently sensible; but the future of the League appears problematical, due to the obstacle of nationalism.

At The Hague in Holland is situated the World Court, a permanent institution designed to dispense international justice. The World Court is provided for under the covenant of the League of Nations, and it functions in relation to the League somewhat as the United States Supreme Court functions in relation to the American government.

The World Court determines what international law may apply in any given case, as between League members, and it seeks to arrange conferences and adjustments as the need arises. The 15 nine-year justices of the World Court represent a wide variety of nations, some of its most distinguished members coming from small countries such as Cuba and Salvador.

There is also another international court at The Hague—the Hague Court of Arbitration, an older institution, founded in 1899. The Hague Court arbitrates international disputes, and the United States is

one of its adherents. The World Court and the Hague Court are quite distinct from each other, and the Hague Court of Arbitration is not a League of Nations adjunct.

Holland, like Switzerland, has been a traditional home of progress and liberty; and it is appropriate that these legal machines of internationalism should be set in a Dutch environment. The Hague contains, for judicial purposes, a magnificent peace palace donated by the late Andrew Carnegie in behalf of a judicial world harmony.

WORLD ORGANIZATIONS—II

THE THIRD INTERNATIONAL headquarters are at Moscow, and contain delegates from all the proletarian communist parties of the world. Berlin was the intended seat of the International; but when Germany failed to go red after the World War (to the surprise of communists in all countries), Moscow was selected because that city was safely within the borders of the new Soviet Russia.

Karl Marx founded the First International at London, in 1864, as a cosmopolitan union of workmen in partial agreement with his collectivist doctrines. It was succeeded by the Second International, which was disrupted by the war of 1914—at which time the workers of Europe turned against one another and forgot their “class solidarity” in the face of conflicting national patriotisms. The Third International dates from the tri-

umph of communism in Russia, and its red propaganda has been greatly feared by capitalistic classes of the world.

It now appears that the Third International is short of funds, and that its revolutionary fervor is waning. In Russia the Stalin régime has stressed a Russian national communism rather than an international communism, and the more able Russians have busied themselves with the ramifications of the five-year plans—leaving the Third International to demagogues of the red “lunatic fringe”, who enjoy speech-making and hectic activity. Russia, of course, has been the chief financial supporter of the Third International, although contributions are received from communists the world over. Many Soviet officials have held Third International positions, but there is no legal or organic connection between the International and the Soviet government. For this reason, protests to the Soviet government regarding the propaganda activities of the Third International have received scant attention.

All revolutions, including the Protestant reformation, the French revolution, and the American revolution, have interested themselves in missionary work abroad; and the Russian revolution has proved no exception to the general rule. But in every case proselyting zeal has gradually lessened with the passage of years, and the future of Moscow internationalism is a doubtful one. The Third International charges the League of Nations with being bourgeois and capitalistic, and considers itself as a proletarian rival of the Geneva body. Neither League nor International is exactly prospering in the heated nationalistic atmosphere

of the post-war era, despite the inherent idealism of both.

The Pan-American Union first met at Washington in 1889, with 19 American republics represented. The Union sponsors arbitration of inter-American disputes, and all the sovereign states of the New World are now represented in its councils. Useful information is collected about the constituent republics, and international harmony and social welfare are promoted by congresses, personal contacts, and frank discussion of mutual problems. Mexico City, Rio de Janeiro in Brazil, Santiago in Chile, Havana, and Montevideo in Uruguay have received Union gatherings at intervals, the great meeting of 1933 having been held in Montevideo.

The Union has a permanent headquarters in Washington, with a remarkably beautiful Pan-American building. The American secretary of state is generally Pan-American chairman. In Pan-American meetings, Mexico, Cuba, and Argentina have sometimes supplied the parliamentary opposition on the ground that the influence of the United States bulks too large in Pan-American councils. South America has a tendency to look to Europe, while the United States tends to be isolationist; but despite this differing orientation, the Pan-American Union has proved itself useful over a long period of years under able leadership.

Implementing the Pan-American Union is the famous Monroe doctrine, dating back to 1823. At that time it appeared that certain of the European great powers, under the reactionary guidance of Prince Met-

ternich of Austria, might aid Spain in the recovery of her revolted American colonies, which had become independent after the pattern of the United States. President James Monroe proceeded to warn Europe that the New World was not open to fresh colonization, and that America would not allow imperialistic schemes to be carried out at the expense of the newly independent Latin-American states. It was a virtual declaration of independence for the New World as a whole.

Since that time some of the Latin-American states have come to resent the doctrine, calling it an example of "Yankee bullying" which tends to deliver Latin America over to the tender mercies of Uncle Sam. But Europe has been forced to respect the doctrine, and it has several times saved lesser American republics from debt-collecting European warships and marines. Whether or not it has outlived its usefulness, the Monroe doctrine proved highly beneficial for at least a century; and the United States itself has renounced the right to collect debts by force of arms, in order to reassure Latin-American fellow-members of the Pan-American Union.

The British Commonwealth of Nations is an outgrowth of the British Empire. It consists of England and the self-governing dominions of Canada, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa, Southern Rhodesia, and the Irish Free State. The English crown is the connecting link between these widely scattered democracies, for in their domestic affairs all of them are now completely self-regulating and of equal status. In each dominion, a titular governor-general represents the

king; but by the Westminster statute of 1931 it was declared that each dominion was "master of its own destiny" and "subject to no more compulsion whatever". Newfoundland voluntarily renounced her dominion status in 1933, because of financial troubles, and is now under the jurisdiction of the British Parliament at London.

Canada, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa, and Ireland are members of the League of Nations, and maintain their own ministers to foreign countries as they see fit. There are Commonwealth conferences every two or three years, that of 1932 having been held at Ottawa in Canada. Ireland and South Africa are generally the dominions most insistent on their separatist rights and independent status, and tariff agreements have been a subject of conference discussion. A common language and civilization are the two most important ties that bind the British Commonwealth of Nations together. In this case sentiment is a stronger bond than force or unifying legislation, although Commonwealth solidarity in any future wars is a matter of uncertain speculation.

VANISHING MONARCHS

A MODERN series of anti-royal movements began in 1871 when, as a result of the Franco-Prussian war, Napoleon III was deposed and the present French republic instituted. In 1910 followed the famous masonic revolution in Portugal, which dethroned King Manuel Braganza. Then came the World War, and a landslide.

The Emperor Nicholas Romanoff (improperly styled "Czar") was overthrown early in 1917, following the repeated defeats of Russian armies on the battlefield. He was murdered by unauthorized communists a year later. The fall of the Romanoffs freed Russia, Poland, Finland, Lithuania, Latvia, and Estonia from monarchical sway. Then came Austro-German defeat in the autumn of 1918, and with it the abdications of the Kaisers Karl Hapsburg and Wilhelm Hohenzollern. Karl's overthrow liberated Austria, Hungary, and Czechoslovakia simultaneously. With Kaiser Wilhelm abdicated the minor German princes, including the kings of Bavaria, Saxony, and Württemberg. Thus passed the three great empires of Russia, Austria-Hungary, and Germany.

Turkey deposed the Osman sultans in 1922, and Greece rid herself of her Danish dynasty in 1924.

Alfonso XIII, born king of Spain in 1886, vacated his throne in 1931. The immediate cause was a nation-

wide series of municipal elections—the first in eight years—in which the issue was plainly monarchy or republic. The electoral verdict was overwhelmingly republican, and the king saw the hand of fate. Had he refused to give up the throne, a great general strike by the republican labor unions would have paralyzed the country.

The exiled royalties scattered in countries other than their own—Kaiser Wilhelm in Holland; Grand Duke Cyril, Russian pretender, in France; the Duc de Guise, French pretender, in Belgium, along with Prince Otto of the Austrian Hapsburgs. Alfonso of Spain and Manuel of Portugal went to England, whither fled Napoleon III in 1871. But Germany, with exemplary toleration, permitted her former crown prince, the Kaiser's younger sons, and the lesser German princes to remain within her borders unmolested.

There are now two groups of monarchies left in Europe. The northern includes England, Belgium, Holland, Denmark, Sweden, and Norway. The southern includes Italy, Yugoslavia, Rumania, Bulgaria, and Albania. The northern group is highly democratic, with popular monarchs supported by educated opinion.

George of England, Leopold of Belgium, Wilhelmina of Holland, Christian of Denmark, Gustav of Sweden, and Haakon of Norway are far more comfortably situated than Carol of Rumania, Alexander of Yugoslavia, Boris of Bulgaria, Zog of Albania, or even Victor Emmanuel of Italy. Carol, after suffering exile for sundry indiscretions, executed a coup in 1930, supplanting his little son Mihai on the Rumanian throne. His position is highly unstable, and his talents questionable.

Alexander, in 1929, found Yugoslavia so torn by domestic dissension that he abolished parliament and appointed himself dictator. His future is most uncertain. Boris of Bulgaria succeeded his father Ferdinand, who abdicated after Bulgaria's defeat in the World War. His country is impoverished, despoiled of territory, and dissatisfied. Married in state to an Italian princess, he is trying to carry on. Zog of Albania was a republican president, who crowned himself in 1928. He is energetic, though in wretched health, living in daily fear of assassination.

Italy is thoroughly stabilized by the Fascist régime in power since 1922, and the Fascists support the monarchy. But it is evident that the magnetic Mussolini completely eclipses the king in power and prestige. Furthermore, the Fascist movement was originally republican. The Fascist Grand Council, supreme power in Italy, has announced its right to regulate the succession to the throne and henceforth the Italian kingship will be appointive rather than hereditary. If an Italian crown prince is a good Fascist, his chances are excellent. If not, they are nil.

The western hemisphere is uniformly republican in titular government. To the east, monarchies are still in a majority, with such states as Japan, Siam, Persia, Afghanistan, Iraq, Egypt, Abyssinia, and certain Indian principalities boasting native royalty. The king of England is automatically the emperor of India. But it must be remembered that monarchs and republics, as such, are both politically insignificant in the post-war era, the *real* modern issue being the question of dictatorship or democracy. Kings do not interfere with

the functioning of democracy, nor do presidents relax the rigidity of dictatorship. Royalty has become so unimportant as to be hardly worth abolishing.

When the World War began, there were no less than six regal Caesars who took a hand in the proceedings. They had inherited their titles from the Roman Empire, and were immensely proud of them. The six were the German Kaiser, the Austrian Kaiser, the Russian Czar, the Bulgarian Czar, the Kaisar-i-Hind (India), and the Kaisar-i-Roum (Turkey). Bulgaria and India still have their Caesars—Boris and English George—but the imperial status of both is a trifle shaky. The other four Caesarian families have drifted far afield, their scions posing as everything from professional exiles to grocers, engineers, and dance instructors. Some of the ex-Caesars have shown a marked aptitude for everyday life, and an extraordinary courage in taking hold of workaday affairs.

DEMOCRACY VERSUS DICTATORSHIP

UP TO the time of the World War, democracy was considered a sort of *summum bonum* or ultimate objective toward which all the peoples of mankind were slowly moving. The democratic system had evolved through the political theories of Jean Jacques Rousseau, John Locke, Charles Montesquieu, and other seventeenth- and eighteenth-century theorists; with pragmatic support from the English parliamentary system and from the French revolution, with its novel slogans of liberty, equality, and fraternity. Through the nineteenth century the democratic dogma slowly spread, until Russia, Turkey, and even remote Asian and African principalities felt the liberalizing urge.

The thirteen colonies of America and the Swiss cantons were early laboratories in the practical application of democracy, for the diverse religions of the new United States and the three races of Switzerland made toleration an absolute necessity to harmonious union. America in the eighteenth century was a testing station for the advanced thinkers of the world, with her New England town-meetings, religious toleration, personal liberties, and emphatic negation of the divine right of kings. Although cursed with the peculiar institution of Negro slavery, the United States of 1789 was un-

doubtedly the freest country in the world—and the country possessed of the ablest national leadership.

In 1914 democracy was the new idea, and absolutism through dictatorial rule was considered hopelessly old-fashioned. The benevolent despots of the eighteenth century—Louis XIV of France, Frederick of Prussia, Catherine of Russia, and Joseph of Austria—had been consigned to the musty attic of history, along with bustles and sedan chairs. Then came the World War, with a shift in values. Russia in 1917 and Italy in 1922 repudiated the principles of democracy—personal liberty, freedom of speech and press, the right of unregulated organization in politics and economics. Both countries adopted avowed philosophies of dictatorship which indignantly rejected the liberty, equality, and fraternity of the French revolution; substituting dictatorial communism in the case of Russia and dictatorial fascism in the case of Italy. Poland, Turkey, Spain, Hungary, Austria, Yugoslavia, and Nazi Germany followed the dictatorial trend for various reasons; and all these up-to-date dictatorships scoffed at democracy as old-fashioned and unsuited to the modern era. The cycle of government was slowly swinging back to the benevolent despotism of the eighteenth century, after a century of *laissez-faire*.

Free capitalism had gone hand in hand with democracy in its progressive march. Liberty in the economic sphere and liberty in the political sphere implemented one another, and dictatorship was opposed to both. In Russia the private employer was done away with, and in Italy he was so regulated as to become almost a servant of the state. America experienced the National

Industrial Recovery Act of 1933, and in Germany the cartel-system and the spirit of the Hitler régime were inimical to free economic competition of the nineteenth-century kind—whereby the government acted only as a passive policeman. Other capitalistic countries underwent economic regulation in one way or another, until—as a French cabinet minister remarked to the writer—only France and England, of the larger states, still clung to the liberal ideal in business. Exponents of dictatorship believed that the liberalism of the democratic and capitalistic scheme was actually *illiberal*, for it gave the employer an opportunity to exploit his workmen without governmental interference.

The Paris peace conference of 1919 was a democratic feast, under the guidance of such liberals as Woodrow Wilson, Lloyd George, and Clemenceau. Newly-created states were provided with democratic institutions; the principle of racial self-determination was applied to debatable regions; and the colonial mandate system was introduced to govern former German colonies. The democratic League of Nations took uncertain root; and dictatorial Germany (which had turned democratic) was disarmed and dismembered, along with dictatorial Austria-Hungary and dictatorial Turkey. But the war had popularized brute-force, and familiarized the European peoples with strict censorship and governmental control in many fields. With hard times and national rivalries in the post-war era came a continuation or resumption of wartime regulation, in which the peoples generally concurred. It was difficult for democracy to fight the dictatorial trend; for democracy, in order to be democratic, must perforce

tolerate all political opinions, including those that are anti-democratic and pro-dictatorial. Thus Hitler was tolerated by democratic Germany until he took dictatorial control and banished the democratic leaders under the Nazi censorship. Inclusive democracy was worsted by exclusive dictatorship.

Modern dictatorial states generally function through a single legal party whose membership is limited and difficult to attain. Elections are unimportant, when held at all, and freedom of speech, of the press, and of organization, are severely curtailed. Economic functions are carefully supervised or assumed by the state, and paternal government becomes the order of the day in every field from marriage to ship-subsidies. The party members are generally honest and patriotic, if at times fanatical in their national zeal; and they are recruited from the population at large rather than from any privileged class (save in Russia, where Communists must be proletarian). Dictatorships need dictators, and dominant personalities play important parts in all of the dictatorial régimes. In Russia a small group of perhaps a dozen men (the political bureau of the Communist party) has taken the place of the individual dictators in other dictatorial countries. Mussolini is himself the Italian dictator, whereas Stalin and even the mighty Lenin were merely chairmen of dictating committees. Hitler, of course, has followed the Italian model.

England, France, and America were the chief advocates of democracy in the World War. The British dominions, the Scandinavian countries, and Switzerland are other dependable devotees of the democratic ideal. Many nations are in an uncertain state of flux,

with dictatorship slowly gaining—although Spain turned from dictatorship to democracy in 1931. Most individuals favor dictatorship, but often no two people can agree as to who should dictate or what form a dictatorship should take. A dictatorship beneficial to some might well be poison to others—with jail or exile awaiting dissenting groups. Democracy has much to be said for it, as it tolerates all beliefs and reasonable activities, and enables antagonistic elements to live together in a *laissez-faire* spirit.

“Democracy, hated by all, divides us least,” someone has said rather wisely. And although everyone in democratic countries criticizes democracy in these times, the critics can at least carp in perfect safety. Under a dictatorship, criticism would mean a visit of secret police and swift imprisonment or exile. The Russian and Italian secret police forces know how to deal with the critics of dictatorial government. Democracies permit one to blow off steam in an eminently satisfactory way.

The writer listened to three friends who were discussing politics. All favored an American dictatorship, but each of the three wanted a different sort of dictator. Under the plan sponsored by any one of them, the other two would have been jailed or deported. American democracy permitted all three to live in the same country peacefully enough, and to air their discordant views freely and without stint. Democracy, in the final analysis, is based on a majority of public opinion; dictatorship on a majority of the available tanks and machine-guns.

PROPORTIONAL REPRESENTATION

AT THE Irish general election of February, 1932, the De Valera party polled 567,000 votes and was assigned 72 parliamentary seats. The government party polled 450,000 votes, and took 56 seats—an equitable distribution. In the British general election, held the preceding fall, the National coalition got 14½ million votes and 493 parliamentary seats; the Labor party nearly 7 million votes, and only 46 seats. In other words, the National coalition won a 2-to-1 victory and received a 10-to-1 parliamentary majority. The explanation—Ireland uses proportional representation, Great Britain does not. British experts bowed to Ireland, and criticized themselves severely. It had taken 29,000 votes to elect a National member of the London Parliament and 144,000 to elect a Labor member.

Ireland is not alone in her sensible use of P. R. Finland, Czechoslovakia, Holland, Belgium, all Scandinavia, the Baltic states, Poland, Bulgaria, Greece, Switzerland, and Cuba have employed the system. In America the cities of Cincinnati and Hamilton in Ohio, and Boulder in Colorado, use the so-called Hare method of proportional representation; and so do Winnipeg, Calgary, West Vancouver, and St. James in Canada. It is also in use in certain cities of Australia

and New Zealand. School boards throughout Scotland are chosen by P. R. In Central Europe it has operated in such a way that each political party receives a percentage of parliamentary seats equivalent to that party's percentage of the total popular vote. The tendency, over a long period of years, has been—under P. R.—to vote for political philosophies and principles rather than for personal leaders.

The Hare method of P. R., used in Ireland and in North American municipalities, is complicated but exceedingly effective in expressing the wishes of the voting citizen. In brief, it works as follows:

There are no election primaries (which are quite unnecessary), and nominations are made by petition. A paper ballot is used—a nonpartisan ballot which is so rotated that each candidate's name appears first on an equal number of the ballots used. The voter, taking his ballot paper, marks his first, second, up to perhaps his twentieth choice, by numbers after the names on the ballot. Only one candidate will receive his vote, and *which* candidate gets it is specifically determined in the following way:

When any candidate has received enough first-choices to elect him, he gets no more. His excess votes thereafter are assigned, one at a time, to those candidates who are marked as second-choices. When all the ballots have been counted, if there are still vacancies, the lowest candidates are declared defeated one at a time. As each one is ruled out, his ballots are re-assigned to second-choice candidates who are still in the running—until the number of candidates has finally boiled down to the exact quota to be elected. Not a

vote has been cast in vain, there are no electoral flukes possible. If the voter's first-choice has been defeated, his second-choice or third-choice is elected by him. His vote is never thrown away; it counts as he would wish it to.

Suppose, for instance, there are five vacancies on a city council and twenty-nine voters. Five votes are all that are necessary to elect a candidate. If Mr. Jones receives eleven first-choices, he gets only the first five which are requisite for his election. The other six are distributed according to their inscribed second-choices. Thereby Mr. Brown, who received four first-choices, is elected by a second-choice from Mr. Jones. Those of the candidates receiving the lowest number of first-choices are dropped from the race one by one, and their ballots are assigned to the inscribed second-choices. If a second-choice had been already elected or dropped, the third-choice receives the vote—or the fourth-choice if need be. By this method the five vacancies are filled, according to the true preferences of the voters.

Political machines—fascist or communist, Vare or Tammany—ignore proportional representation, and with good reason. P. R. annihilates the chances of a militant minority of highly-organized partisans, who would otherwise be enabled to exploit the disorganization of a divided majority. Under the one-member-district system generally used, the machine simply outvotes all groups of opponents in the primary of the largest party. One-fifth of the votes is generally sufficient for this—hence one-fifth of the voters, in practice, exert a virtual dictatorship. Under proportional rep-

resentation, a machine with one-fifth of the voting strength gets one-fifth of the representatives, and no more. The disorganized majority, helpless under any other system of voting, exerts the real electoral power under P. R. through its transferable votes. P. R., in short, provides a scientific-democratic basis for the city-manager plan of municipal government. Just now it is America's outstanding political need.

New York City offered a classic example of misrepresentation in its municipal election of November, 1931. Democratic voters totalled 851,216, and Republican voters totalled 339,020—a ratio of $2\frac{1}{2}$ to 1. But 65 Democratic aldermen were actually elected, and only 1 Republican! Under proportional representation there would have been 42 Democratic aldermen and 17 Republican aldermen.

The eminent Judge Seabury has recommended proportional representation as an antidote to the toxicity of New York City politics. Norman Thomas, public-spirited presidential candidate, and Nicholas Murray Butler, of Columbia University, are in agreement with him. Thus all shades of opinion are joined in the non-partisan spirit which P. R. engenders.

If democracy is to endure in the post-war era, such adequate electoral machinery is urgently necessitated. Hence the importance of P. R. in the modern scheme.

WORLD LANGUAGES

THERE ARE nearly 3,000 languages spoken in the world, according to officers of the all-knowing French Academy. The vast majority of these are of local significance, ranging from Danish to Iroquois; but there are four tongues which have an international significance and a widespread dissemination. These four are English, French, German, and Spanish. In addition, there are artificial world languages which have been deliberately invented—such as Volapuk, Esperanto, and Anglic, which to date have made little progress.

English is the language of the United States and the British Empire, and it is used widely in China and Japan as a medium of business. It has been estimated that 220 million people can speak it, in all; and that it is the native tongue of 160 million of them. Canada, Ireland, and the South African Union are bilingual, with French, Gaelic, and Dutch as alternate languages. With its immense vocabulary of half a million "live" words, its flexibility, and its fine literature, English is perhaps the world language of the future. English and French are the official languages of the League of Nations at Geneva, and English is being widely studied in Soviet Russia and in Nazi Germany. Shakespeare and Darwin may have been leading agents in the cultural spread of English; but in the business world, English and American industrialization and commerce have played an important part.

French is the traditional language of diplomacy and of high society, and because of its exactness and simple clarity it is a useful legal tool. It is spoken in France, Belgium, Switzerland, Canada, Haiti, and in the vast French colonial empire of Asia and Africa. An extensive artistic and cultural literature is written in French, and in times past it was the court language of England, Russia, and many of the German principalities. Frederick of Prussia wrote in French, and chatted with Voltaire in it, to the exclusion of his native German. Today French is the native language of 45 million people, and it is understood and spoken incidentally by 75 million more—ranging from colonial Negroes to cultivated London society leaders. The eighteenth century was probably the period in which French was most popular, and most used in diplomacy and court life.

German is spoken in Germany, Austria, Switzerland, and Czechoslovakia, and by German colonists throughout Central Europe and Russia. It is the chief commercial language of the Balkans, and is a sort of second tongue within the Soviet Union. Much of the best scientific and engineering material is written in German, and technicians of all nations find a knowledge of German very useful. The language is native to well over 80 million people, and it is spoken and understood by at least 30 million more—scattered from Poland to Brazil. Yiddish, which is basically a late medieval German, written in Hebrew characters, is widely spoken among the Jews of the world. Yiddish and German are mutually intelligible. Perhaps, aside from scientific works of high merit, the German writings of Karl Marx (especially his "Das Kapital") have helped to

spread the study of German eastward. The poet Goethe and Germanic operas have served to promote German in the cultural field.

Spanish continues to be a language of great importance, particularly in Pan-American commercial circles. Spoken in Spain, Mexico, Cuba, Central America, South America (except Brazil, which speaks Portuguese), and in lesser nooks and corners, the world contains between 70 and 80 million Spanish-speakers. For North American business men engaged in South American trade, a knowledge of Spanish has proved extremely valuable; and the Spanish language—stretching from Chilian Santiago to Catalonian Barcelona—is a living monument to the mighty Spanish empire of the sixteenth century, whose final disruption began about 1811 when Spanish America revolted against Spanish exploitation. Spanish, incidentally, is said to be the easiest of all languages for an Anglo-Saxon to learn—provided that the Anglo-Saxon has studied Latin in high school.

In the Roman Empire and through the Middle Ages, Latin was the universal language for educated people. It is still the language of the Catholic church. But the rise of national states and the Protestant reformation (1517) helped to develop a wide range of national languages which turned Europe into a sort of Tower of Babel. Latin itself subdivided into French, Spanish, Italian, Portuguese, Rumanian, and lesser dialects. Numerous almost-dead languages, like Gaelic and Czech, have been revived to the worriment of cosmopolitanism. But still the linguistic Big Four forge ahead in the field of cultural and economic affairs.

RELIGION AND ANTI-RELIGION

RELIGIOUS CREEDS were the original political parties, in days before economics and nationalism had become the deciding factors in the destinies of peoples. Before the French revolution introduced modern patriotism to Europe, hatred between Frenchmen and Germans, or Irishmen and Englishmen, rarely existed as such. In those earlier times it was Christendom against Islam, or Catholics against Protestants. Racial and national demarcations were considered unimportant, but in matters of faith and creed the world was divided against itself with an extreme fanaticism.

The Crusades of the Middle Ages and the Thirty Years War in the seventeenth century were typical of religious struggles at their worst. In seventeenth-century politics the English Puritans battled with the established Church of England, in and out of Parliament; while on the European continent the Protestant reformation was followed by the Jesuit counter-reformation, which checkmated the followers of Luther and Calvin in many countries.

In ancient Rome the mystery religions of Christ, Isis, and Mithras fought with one another, and against the old paganism, until Christianity finally triumphed in the fourth century. In ancient Greece the philosophers and their ethical cults contended, under Plato,

Aristotle, and Socrates, in long parliamentary debates and heated arguments. In Spain the cruel Inquisition disposed of heretical non-Catholics in short order during the late medieval period, while Jews were persecuted everywhere by the illiterate barons and ignorant peasants of Europe.

To this day religion is an important political issue in Germany, Russia, India, and all the Catholic countries. Some of the main rivalries are: Christianity versus non-Christianity, as in the missionary field. Atheism versus all religions, as in Russia. Catholics versus agnostics, as in most of the Latin countries. Catholics versus Protestants, as in Germany and Ireland. Hindus versus Mohammedans, as in India. Christianity against the Jews, as in Germany and some of the lesser countries of Central Europe.

Today there are in the world approximately 330 million Catholics, whose head is the Pope at Rome. Latin Europe, Latin America, Poland, Austria, South Germany, Hungary, Czechoslovakia, and Ireland are leading Catholic strongholds, with a strong minority in the United States and Canada. Roughly 200 million Protestants are divided into many sects, which cover England and the British dominions, the United States, North Germany, Scandinavia, Switzerland, Holland, Finland, and the Baltic states. "Greek" Orthodox faith—which, like the Protestant, is subdivided—embraces the Balkan states and what is left of Russian Christianity. Its unofficial capital is Constantinople, and its membership is well over 140 million. The Orthodox creed and Protestantism sometimes coöperate with mutual friendliness in their common aims. There are, in addition,

several early Christian churches which can be considered as semi-Orthodox. These exist in Armenia, Syria, Egypt, Abyssinia, and elsewhere in Asia and Africa. In many Protestant and Orthodox countries the monarch functions as head of the established national church, as in England.

There are more than 200 million Mohammedans, mostly in Asia and North Africa, including Turks, Arabs, Berbers, Persians, Afghans, and many Indians and Egyptians. There are also followers of Islam in the Balkan countries, especially in Albania and Jugoslavia, and in parts of mighty Russia. The 150 million Buddhists are found in Tibet, China, Japan, Siam, and parts of India. Buddha's is a gentle pacifist religion rather like theoretical Christianity, while Islam is a religion of the sword and a warrior's delight. India contains 230 million Hindus, divided into many sects and castes, whose beliefs had much in common with those of Greek mythology in primitive times. China is the principal home of 350 million Confucianists and Taoists. The Confucian creed is an ethical philosophy rather than a religion based on faith. Japan, which has Buddhists and Confucianists, is Shintoist to the number of 25 million people, extreme patriots and worshippers of their semi-divine emperor. Here is a sort of mystical nationalism, in effect.

Jews of the world total 16 million, two-thirds of whom live in Europe, and nearly one-third in North America. They are, perhaps, the most talented of all religionists, and they are certainly the most cosmopolitan and tolerant. Wherever they have gone, they have assumed leadership in business and the fine arts. Rus-

sia, Germany, Central Europe, and the United States have been their principal lands of adoption, and their puritanical virtues have for centuries withstood ill-treatment and expulsion. Atheism, or anti-religion, is the paradoxical state religion of Soviet Russia and of millions elsewhere. The number of atheists is difficult to estimate, but it includes all communists and large numbers of non-reds as well. The Russian government can be classified as atheist, but not the entire Russian people. Most of the elder generation in Russia continue to worship as Orthodox, Protestants, Jews, or Mohammedans.

There are, in addition, perhaps well over 150 million savage pagans or simple nature-worshippers scattered about the wild spots of the globe, despite the efforts of Christian and Mohammedan missionaries. Australian Bushmen, African Negroes, or South American Indians, still in the rudimentary state, are examples of this vast group.

Although struggles between nations, and the class struggle between capital and labor, are receiving much attention in the post-war twentieth century, the religious struggle is by no means ended in any country. Even in rational France, the parliamentary conservatives are strongly Catholic in their sympathies, while the parliamentary liberals are anti-Catholic in political matters. America found that religion was a regrettable minor issue in the presidential campaign of 1928. In England, official Anglicans and Protestant non-conformists still glare at one another from time to time; while among the tolerant and peaceful Swiss, Catholics and Protestants seldom mingle socially.

Each creed has its father or fathers. Christ, Moses, Mohammed, Buddha, Confucius, Luther, Calvin, Lenin, Gandhi, and the Catholic and Orthodox saints please a wide variety of people. Jesus was styled "god of the Christians", and Lenin is sometimes nicknamed "god of the godless". Crusading is by no means discarded, yet religion continues to prove its high value as an inspiring guide to human life.

MILESTONES TO NATION- HOOD

CERTAIN GREAT battles have influenced national states materially, by their sequence of political and economic events. Wars are deplorable stepping-stones, but it is impossible to deny that they have put into motion eventful trends and movements. A brief list of decisive military actions follows:

Marathon (490 B.C.). Here a handful of Greeks defeated the mighty Persians, saving Hellenic civilization from a threatened oriental domination, and thereby making western culture what it is today. West triumphed over the East, a priceless gain for humanity.

Metaurus (207 B.C.). Carthaginian Hasdrubal, brother of Hannibal, was killed by the Romans—which led to the failure of Hannibal and his elephants in Italy. Rome eventually overwhelmed Carthage, her African rival, and valuable Roman institutions were handed down to ourselves.

Teutoburg (9 A.D.). Arminius, German national hero, exterminated three Roman legions and saved the Reich from Roman imperialism and Latin culture. The Angles and Saxons, who had not yet migrated to England, thereby remained Teutonic.

Adrianople (378). Gothic horsemen in armor defeated an army of trained Roman legionaries. It was a

triumph for mail-clad cavalry, or knights, and marked the opening of the Middle Ages—a period in which knights reigned supreme.

Chalons (451). Attila, king of the eastern Huns, was repulsed by the Romans and their allies—a check to the wild nomads from Asia who were threatening all of Europe with horrid destruction.

Tours (732). The Franks of Charles Martel stopped the Mohammedan Moors, who had conquered Spain and entered France. Christianity was saved from Islam, and the Bible triumphed over the Koran as a permanent guide for western humanity.

Crecy (1346). Common English archers gained a smashing success over the knightly chivalry of France. It led to an initial rising among the French peasants, hitherto utterly passive, and showed that yeomen could defeat the nobility in battle—a lesson in democracy which was to bear fruit.

Constantinople (1453). The Turks captured this Byzantine Greek city, driving out many learned scholars who fled to Italy and western Europe. It brought about an intellectual renaissance and an escape from medieval barbarism, through the introduction of eastern science and classical culture. Trade routes to the Orient were closed, leading to the discovery of the Americas in 1492.

Spanish Armada (1588). Little England vanquished a great Spanish navy at sea, and became a world power after centuries of obscurity. It was a first step in the disintegration of the mighty Spanish empire. Protestantism in England was preserved from threatened Catholic conquest.

Vienna (1683). John Sobieski of Poland routed the Turks at the city gates, preserving Austria and Germany from Islam and the Orient at a time of extreme danger. It was a clean-cut victory of Kultur over Koran, still celebrated by the Viennese.

Saratoga (1777). American colonists captured General Burgoyne's English army in a great victory, which brought French aid and ultimate independence to the thirteen colonies. Here was born the United States.

Valmy (1792). The French revolutionary mobs won against Prussian and Austrian regulars, sent into France to crush the new principles of liberty, equality, fraternity. By this victory, the French revolution was preserved for the democratic betterment of mankind.

Waterloo (1815). Napoleon was finally overthrown by the allied English and Prussians, which marked the end of the French revolutionary wars and of French hegemony in Europe. Waterloo was the beginning of a nineteenth-century progress to better things in every sphere of human endeavor. The great personality of Napoleon was eclipsed.

Marne (1914). The German armies were halted at the gates of Paris, by good luck rather than skill in defense of the city. With Paris in German hands, the World War would have ended in a swift German victory and a very different map of Europe. The Marne led to Allied triumph in 1918.

Warsaw (1920). The red armies of Soviet Russia drove the Poles back upon their capital city, where they rallied and routed the Russians. Had the reds won, communism would have spread over Europe at the expense of capitalism and western civilization as we know

it. Warsaw checked the spread of Marxism, just as Tours checked the spread of Mohammedanism.

Of all these battles, in the opinion of the writer, Marathon, Tours, the Armada, Valmy, and Warsaw rank as most significant in the long run. Civilization, as we know it, had gained consecutive victories over Persian despotism, Mohammedan militarism, Spanish intolerance, the medieval feudal system, and the economic theories of Karl Marx. One can not condemn outright the vanquished and the principles for which they stood; but had any of these lost causes triumphed, many of us would be leading very different (and probably less satisfactory) lives today.

NORTH AMERICA



UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC

THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA was the first modern democracy, and a political laboratory for the liberal intellectuals of the eighteenth century. At first governed by the loose Articles of Confederation, which functioned with a minimum of central authority, the thirteen American colonies put into operation the present constitution in 1789. Down to the present time this federal document has proved its worth as an instrument of government, although 21 amendments have been added from time to time, in keeping with the spirit of the day. There are now 48 states, with legislatures roughly similar to the federal Congress. State social enactments differ widely, but state political institutions are surprisingly uniform.

There are three distinct powers in the American federal government—the executive, the legislative, and the judicial. The president performs executive duties, the two houses of Congress (Senate and House of Representatives) attend to legislation, and the Supreme Court lays down judicial decisions in case of controversy or appeal. This separation of powers differs widely from the English parliamentary system, under which the executive (prime-minister) represents the majority of the legislature (Parliament), which is also

endowed with certain judicial functions. In America a president, elected for a four-year term, is often opposed by a hostile Congress; while in England the ministry and Parliament are kept automatically in agreement.

The American system makes for stability in office-holding, while the English system is more flexible in accordance with the sentiment of the people. English cabinet ministers are responsible to Parliament for their actions, while American cabinet ministers are responsible only to the president who has selected them. Generally speaking, Latin American democracies have followed the American plan; while European democracies (except for Switzerland) use the English system, as do the scattered British dominions. America sometimes experiences political deadlocks of executive versus legislature, to which England is not exposed by her parliamentary system.

The United States is still mainly Protestant, in keeping with the tradition of its original settlement; but there is a high percentage of Catholics, and many Jews, especially in New York City. The foreign-born almost equal the native-born in many large centers, although the rural population is usually of old American stock. Negroes are extremely numerous in the southern states, and on the west coast there are many Japanese, Chinese, and Filipinos—despite Asiatic exclusion laws. Slavery was abolished by Abraham Lincoln in 1863, in the course of the devastating Civil War. The proponents of extreme state-rights, active since the original formation of the federal union, were effectively silenced by the fratricidal struggle of 1861–65. Seces-

sion from the union, upheld by the southern states, became a dead issue and has remained so.

America is primarily an agricultural country, with small farms in the east, cotton plantations in the south, and vast wheat and cattle ranches in the far west. Manufacturing has grown rapidly since the Civil War, until the United States finds herself competing with such industrial nations as England and Germany for world markets. Today there is a fair balance between industry and agriculture, with Pennsylvania a leading factory state and the mid-western farmers the backbone of the nation. America is rich in natural resources, and only coffee, rubber, and a few other commodities must be supplied from abroad. Coal, iron, silver, gold, oil, hydro-electric power, and lumber she has in abundance; and Detroit is the automobile metropolis of the world, just as California is the motion-picture center for all countries.

California and Florida furnish warm resorts akin to those of southern Europe; while winter sports are available in most of the northern states when the snow flies. New York is the second (if not the first) city of the world in population and importance, and Indianapolis boasts the world's leading motor speedway. New Orleans has a typically Latin *Mardi Gras*, while Pittsburgh is a metal center which rivals German Essen or English Birmingham. Even the agricultural southern states are becoming increasingly industrialized, while still producing tobacco, and cigarettes, and their specialty of cotton. Farms and mills dot New England. Boston is still the Athens of North America in matters of the intellect. There are state universities in

most American commonwealths, and in nearly every state there is free and compulsory education for the young. American schools are administered on a substantial basis, and teaching the coming generation has always been a matter of national pride. The Pilgrims were eager educationalists in 1620; so are the Republicans and Democrats of today.

Prohibition was adopted as a war-time measure of efficiency, but was enacted into a constitutional amendment following the war. Enforcement did not function well, and there was widespread bootlegging, graft, and corruption involved in alcoholic evasion. Finland and Norway also tried prohibition and failed. American prohibition was repealed, by another constitutional amendment, in 1933 amid general acclaim from orderly elements which favored real temperance. Liquor interests in politics and the saloon, of infamous memory, were the two targets at which prohibition had aimed. It is possible that these evils will reappear with the legalization of alcohol. Public sentiment, both wet and dry, is against alcoholic corruption—whether it be public or private.

In the fall of 1929 the world-wide economic depression came to America, with its sequence of unemployment, overproduction, and hard times. An era of prosperity, which had followed the World War, vanished; and the United States found itself confronted with stark realities. Franklin D. Roosevelt defeated Herbert Hoover in the presidential election of 1932, and in 1933 the National Industrial Recovery Act launched a campaign to improve conditions through occupational codes, agreed upon by representatives of the various

businesses, under general supervision of the federal government. Team-work within each line of business was designed to slow down reckless competition, while wages and hours of labor were regulated in uniform style for the benefit of all concerned. Public works were instituted in many lines, such as forestry and outdoor construction, and the federal treasury backed the individual states in their efforts for public relief. The blue eagle of the N.I.R.A. sprouted wings for all.

America entered the colonial field in 1867, by the purchase of Alaska from Russia. In 1898 came the Spanish-American War and the acquisition of Porto Rico and the Philippine Islands, while Cuba then became a virtual American protectorate under the watchful eye of Uncle Sam. Hawaii had been acquired some years earlier, by volition of the Hawaiians themselves. The Virgin Islands were purchased from Denmark in 1917, there being a reputed danger that German submarines might use them as bases in their war-time raiding. Other colonial fragments, owned by the United States, have been peaceably acquired from time to time. Armenia, tendered to America as mandate, was refused with grateful thanks at the close of the World War.

The American navy is now organized upon an agreement of parity with England, which makes it one of the two strongest fleets in the world. The American army is very small (125,000 men)—scattered in the United States and abroad, in fortresses and outposts. Aviation is well developed, both commercially and for military purposes; and American engineering genius is shown in the mechanization of American forces of defense. American transport of an army 2 million strong to

France during 1917-18 was a marvel of swift improvisation and enterprise. The minute-men of 1775 were equalled by the three-minute men and dollar-a-year men of 1918.

The two American political parties have long and interesting histories. They date back, more or less indirectly, to the close of the American revolution. At this time Americans were divided into Federalists, under the leadership of Alexander Hamilton, and Anti-Federalists, sponsored by Thomas Jefferson. The aristocratic Federalists favored a strong central government, and adequate protection for vested interests and what big business there was at the time. The Anti-Federalists were strong for states' rights, local government, and the interests of the democratic masses.

The Anti-Federalists later turned into Democrats, and Andrew Jackson was their most popular leader. They upheld slavery as part of their states'-rights philosophy, and became a stronghold for city proletarians and nineteenth-century immigrants—especially those from Ireland. The Civil War dealt a heavy blow to the Democratic party, but the policies of Grover Cleveland, the "new freedom" of Woodrow Wilson, and the "new deal" of Franklin Roosevelt were essentially democratic in application and concept.

The Federalists died a natural death, hastened by their anglophile attitude during the War of 1812. They were succeeded by the Whigs, who were a group favoring a strong federal government and big business; and later by the Republican party which was opposed to slavery. The Republicans won the Civil War, and Abraham Lincoln has been their greatest leader. After

this conflict, the Republicans became increasingly identified with industrial interests and a high tariff, and were accused by the low-tariff Democrats of being plutocratic. The Republicans, however, have generally had a progressive western wing with agrarian interests, to match the Democrats of the agrarian Solid South. "Sound money" has been often a special Republican plank.

Theodore Roosevelt and Herbert Hoover, both with progressive tendencies, have been the outstanding Republican leaders of the twentieth century. Pennsylvania manufacturing interests, and those of other states, have continued to play an important part in Republican councils, but the party membership has maintained a fairly even balance. In fact the Republican machine of Wisconsin, under LaFollette auspices, has been more radical than most Democrats; as have many of the western Republican "insurgent" leaders.

There is little fundamental difference between the two American parties, for both are democratic and both are republican. The Democrats are perhaps less inclined to an aggressive foreign policy, and they are probably more favorable toward experimentation—as under the National Industrial Recovery Act, and in their occasional advocacy of "free silver", or various kinds of currency inflations. American prohibition was a nonpartisan matter in which the Democrats happened to effect repeal because they were in office at the crucial moment.

In one sense both parties contain cross-sections of the *Populus Americanus*. The Democratic party includes puritanical southern agrarians and northern city

proletarians of diametrically opposite types, while the Republican party contains monied eastern conservatives and agrarian western progressives in the same political harness. Most of the socialists in America, paradoxically, are capitalists who like to read books. The American masses, despite unemployment and hardship, have been solidly capitalistic and eager to rise through "rugged American individualism". Third parties in America have seldom been anything but transient or fourth-rate, the two large parties alternating in a rather amicable and generally constructive rivalry for federal and state leadership.

In short, one governmental expert has summarized the American political system in the following words:

"Traditionally American government has been built upon distrust of the individual. We have called it a government of laws. The theory has been that men could not be trusted, but that if enough laws were passed, prescribing just what could be done, this would automatically insure good government. The founding fathers set up Congress and the president as checks against each other. They set up the House and Senate as checks against harebrained action by one or the other. Over it all they set up the Supreme Court as a check on both legislative and executive branches. Then they ran out of checks and had none left to use on the Supreme Court. So after all, the fate of the nation had to be left in the hands of nine men who were responsible to nobody but themselves."

President:—Franklin D. Roosevelt.

Area:—3,026,789 square miles (inclusive of 53,013 square miles

of water), or about 272,000 square miles less than the area of Brazil.

Population:—122,775,046.

Capital:—Washington, D. C.; population 486,869. It is notable that the District of Columbia is administered by the Federal Government, the direction of municipal affairs being in the hands of Executive Commissioners who are named by the President of the United States and whose appointments are confirmed by the Senate.

Possessions:—Alaska, Guam, Hawaii, Panama Canal Zone, Philippine Islands, Porto Rico, American Samoa, and the Virgin Islands. Their area totals 716,740 square miles, with a population of approximately 14,000,000 (census, 1930).

CANADA

DEMOCRATIC DOMINION

CANADA is one of the most loyal British dominions, as she showed by her heroic exertions in the World War. She has two races and two languages—English and French—between whom there has been occasional friction in the past. The English-speaking population is generally Protestant, while the French are devoutly Catholic in belief, politics, and educational matters. The English element is often highly imperial-minded; but the French, who have lost all connection with France, tend to be locally “Canadian” in their feelings.

England won Canada from France in 1763, after long wars, and dominion status was granted to the Canadians in 1867. The United States attempted to annex Canada during the American revolution and again in 1812, but on both occasions met with decisive defeat. Many Tory exiles migrated to Canada after the American revolution, and these aristocrats long

played an important part in Canadian government and leadership. They and their descendants have naturally been ultra-loyal to England. Mohawk Indians fled to Canada with the Tories, and today King George is their honorary chief or sachem. The wily redskins, too, had been "united-empire loyalists" in 1776.

Canada functions under a Senate and a House of Commons, along English parliamentary lines. There is a governor-general to represent the king, but his powers are nominal. Universal suffrage for men and women exists, as in most true democracies. Canada is a federation of 9 self-governing provinces or states, in addition to the Yukon area and the northwest territories. French Quebec and English Ontario are the two leading states, each with a population of more than 2 million. There is a well-organized militia, a small navy and air-force, and the very able Royal Canadian Mounted Police "which always gets its man". This police enforces dominion statutes, tracks criminals, and patrols the vast Canadian territories. It is world-famous for its efficiency, and numbers 2,500 redcoats. The long Canadian-American boundary is in no way fortified, an outstanding example of international harmony. The dominion is a loyal member of the League of Nations.

Canada differs from the United States in the fact that all powers not expressly vested in the Canadian states belong to the dominion government, while in America all powers not expressly vested in the federal government belong to the several states. In the American scheme of things, states' rights are more heavily emphasized.

Business is largely agricultural, with grain-raising,

ranching, and dairying as leading occupations. There are fisheries, and mines for gold, silver, nickel, copper, lead, zinc, and coal. The fur-trade is still important, and the factory system is expanding despite American competition along industrial lines. Hydro-electric power is especially well developed. The Canadian national railways control two trans-continental lines which are the delight of travelers. Liquor-selling is a state monopoly, run on a model plan; and alcoholic prohibition, as attempted by Ontario, failed as it has in the United States, Finland, and Norway.

Area:—(Land) 3,457,000 square miles; (water) 227,000 square miles. Land area is about a fifth larger than the land area of the United States, exclusive of possessions.

Population:—10,376,000. (About one-third French descent.)

Capital:—Ottawa; population, 126,000.

NEWFOUNDLAND

DEMOCRATIC EX-DOMINION

THE BRITISH dominion of Newfoundland has been in the possession of England since its discovery by John Cabot in 1497. Oldest of English colonies, it was acquired when Scotland was still an independent kingdom, hostile to England. In 1855 Newfoundland received the special status of a self-governing dominion, and later refused to unite with the federated dominion of Canada. Fishing has always been the chief occupation of the hardy population, who are born seafarers in the eternal quest for cod, salmon, and halibut.

Newfoundland politics were on a low plane after

the World War, under a local spoils system, and finance was in bad shape due to inefficiency and the depression. There was a severe governmental crisis, and in 1933 England took back Newfoundland as a crown colony under a sort of political and financial receivership. The Newfoundlanders voluntarily surrendered their historic home-rule in favor of the London Parliament. The fisheries were dwindling and the dominion was badly in debt, to the accompaniment of rioting and general disorder.

Labrador is a dependency, three times the size of Newfoundland itself, with a weather-beaten population of only 4,000. Newfoundland had a two-chamber parliament and a royal governor, who was merely a figure-head before the English receivership of 1933. There was universal suffrage, male and female.

Area:—42,734 square miles.

Population:—277,000.

Capital:—St. John's; population, 43,000.

MEXICO

DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC

MEXICO is the most populous Spanish-American country, and—except for Uruguay—the most socialistic state in the New World. Before the Spaniards, under Cortez, conquered the country in the sixteenth century, there existed in Mexico the remarkable Aztec, Toltec, and Maya civilizations—which had attained cultural levels in some respects higher than those of the Span-

iards themselves. These early Indian states had certain marked socialistic features.

In 1821 Mexico won her independence from Spain, and there followed a century of revolutions and internal disturbances under emperors, presidents, generals, and dictators. During the American Civil War period, Maximilian of the Austrian Hapsburgs reigned, with French support, as Mexican emperor. Prior to this, Mexico had lost Texas, California, New Mexico, Arizona, and some adjacent territory to the United States in a hard-fought war; and Mexican-American relations have been subjected to a chronic strain, off and on, ever since. In 1913 the American fleet captured Vera Cruz, a leading Mexican gulf port, and there were military and naval actions as the result of an unfortunate diplomatic incident.

Mexico is a confederation of 28 states, which enjoy considerable local powers. Under the advanced constitution of 1917, there is universal suffrage for a parliament of two houses. The Mexican Federation of Labor is very influential, and an elaborate labor law of 1931 protects the rights of the workers in such matters as wages, hours, living conditions, and collective bargaining. Every Mexican, over 18 years old, is entitled to a plot of government land for cultivation; and the rich sub-soil of Mexico has been nationalized—a heavy blow to foreign oil and mining interests which were exploiting the country with vast amounts of American and European capital. There is no death penalty in Mexico, and mental alienists take the place of a jury in criminal court cases. Re-education, rather than punishment, is the purpose of Mexican justice.

The Mexican population is predominantly Indian, of a high grade stock. There are only 2 million pure whites. Mexicans are Catholic, but the state and federal governments are anti-clerical in theory and practice. Religious bodies may not acquire landed property, foreign priests have been expelled, and education has been taken over by the states. Bitter disputes between church and government have marked these changes. The University of Mexico is the oldest institution of learning in the New World, dating back to the sixteenth century.

Here is a land of mines and oil-wells. Mines yield 40 per cent of the world's silver, as well as gold, copper, lead, zinc, and petroleum. In Mexico are located the two largest petroleum refineries in existence. Agriculture produces wheat, cotton, sugar, and vegetables; and the great landed estates are in process of a gradual subdivision.

The army totals 60,000 men. The navy consists of a few gunboats. In international politics, Mexico is inclined to be anti-American and against foreign capitalists in general. The Mexican Federation of Labor, however, has been on friendly terms with the American Federation of Labor. It is said that socialized Mexico is enjoying the best administration in her history. In 1934 she held a model presidential election.

President:—Lazaro Cardenas.

Area:—767,198 square miles, or approximately one-fourth the area of the United States.

Population:—16,404,000, of whom about one-fifth are white, two-fifths Indian and the remainder mixed blood. Of the 600,000 foreigners resident in Mexico, 300,000 are Spanish, about 60,000 American citizens and 15,000 British subjects.

Capital:—Mexico City; population, 1,000,000.

C U B A

Dictatorial Republic

SPAIN LOST her American colonies early in the nineteenth century, but Cuba lingered on as an "ever-faithful isle" until the century's close. After repeated bloody revolts which were met by enormous Spanish armies and by cruel concentration camps for men, women, and children, the island achieved its independence through the Spanish-American War of 1898. The Platt amendment to Cuban independence, adopted by the American Congress in 1901, specified that Cuba should not make treaties with foreign powers to endanger her own freedom, regulated her foreign debts, presented the United States navy with two Cuban coaling stations, and provided for other measures of general supervision. America was given the right to intervene in behalf of Cuban independence, should the need arise. Cuban independence had strings tied to it, but America finally severed these in 1934.

Cuban history after 1898 was troubled by disturbances, and her population was rendered unstable by a racial mixture of Spanish, Indian, and Negro elements. Havana became a sporty pleasure resort with "Parisian" attractions, and Cuban politics were at times as corrupt as Cuban night-life. General Machado was Cuban dictator from 1925 till 1933, when he was ousted by a general strike and a revolution of some magnitude. His presidential rule had been an iron one, and he was accused of too close a coöperation with foreign capitalistic interests, enforced by terrorist meth-

ods. Dr. Cespedes succeeded Machado under more liberal auspices, but Cespedes in turn was overthrown by the rank-and-file of the Cuban army under Sergeant Batista. The army privates had marked communistic tendencies, and installed Dr. Grau San Martin as provisional president. There dawned the prospect of a red régime, but instead Colonel Mendieta came to power with the approval of the revolutionary junta. Mendieta was recognized by the United States (January, 1934) and acclaimed by the Havana populace.

Cuban government is modelled, in theory, after that of the United States. There is a congress of two houses—senate and representatives—and a somewhat uncertain suffrage which has utilized proportional representation. Catholicism is strongly entrenched, although many Cuban liberals are anti-clerical in their sympathies. Wealthy Cubans dwell in great luxury, in contrast to the squalor of the rural peasantry and the Havana city proletariat. As in Brazil and Argentina, social demarcations are rather startling in their considerable abruptness.

Cuba has excellent harbors, and sugar and tobacco are the standard crops. Cuban sugar is world-famous, and an overproduction has contributed to Cuban economic depression and to Cuban political unrest. Sugar mills and refineries employ many thousands of natives, and in 1925 Cuba furnished nearly a quarter of the world's supply. The manufacture of cigars and cigarettes is a leading national occupation. Lack of mineral resources handicaps the island along lines of industrial development, for coal, oil, and hydro-electric power are almost lacking. American capital is heavily inter-

ested in Cuban sugar, and the American sugar market is a vital factor in Cuban prosperity.

Cuba is a member of the League of Nations, and joined the Allies in the World War. Her army functions as a political party rather than as an instrument of national defense. The protective Platt amendment has been the real "army-navy" of the Cuban republic.

President:—Carlos Mendieta.

Area:—44,164 square miles.

Population:—4,000,000.

Capital:—Havana; population, 600,000.

WEST INDIAN STATES

DICTATORIAL REPUBLICS

HAITI AND SANTO DOMINGO occupy opposite ends of a West Indian island on which Columbus is said to have first landed, after his memorable voyage of 1492. Columbus christened the island "Hispaniola", or "Little Spain", and today two Negro republics cover the ground. Haiti became a French colony which won her independence in 1804, and Santo Domingo declared her separation from Spain in 1821. From 1822 till 1844 Haiti controlled Santo Domingo in a sort of insular black solidarity. The language of Haiti is still French, and that of Santo Domingo is Spanish.

Both little republics have two-house congresses, consisting of a senate and a chamber of deputies. In both, elections are inclined to be violent, few, and far between. The twin states are Catholic in religion, but

Voodoo worship and strange mysteries prevail in wild parts of Haiti—a relic of the African jungles which bewilders and delights sensational novelists. Haiti had a great liberator, a black Napoleon named General Toussaint L'Overture—a statesman and military genius whose fame still lives alike in the West Indies and in Europe.

American marines occupied Santo Domingo from 1916 till 1924, and disorderly Haiti has also been a favorite stamping ground for the seadogs of Uncle Sam. In 1915 America took a hand in Haitian affairs, and until 1936 American advisers supervise police, finance, public health, and agricultural training, gradually relinquishing various departments as Haiti becomes stabilized.

Haiti produces excellent coffee, cocoa, cotton, and sugar. She has a varied mineral wealth, but as yet this is little exploited. Sugar is the principal Dominican product, and cocoa, coffee, and valuable minerals are other contributions of Santo Domingo. Both republics are members of the League of Nations. Haiti is blacker than Santo Domingo in racial composition, but in both states there is white and Indian blood. Santo Domingo has even a Syrian admixture, and large numbers of Mulattoes are influential in West Indian politics.

HAITI

President:—Stenio Vincent.

Area:—10,204 square miles (estimated), or slightly larger than Vermont.

Population:—2,550,000 (estimated), exclusive of 3,000 whites and United States military forces. The above figure comprises mostly Negroes, but there are also great numbers of mulatto Haitians, who are descended from former French settlers.

Capital.—Port-au-Prince; population, 79,797, exclusive of suburbs.

DOMINICAN REPUBLIC

President.—Rafael Leonidas Trujillo Molina.

Area.—19,332 square miles, or approximately that of Vermont and New Hampshire.

Population.—1,022,485 (estimated), chiefly of a mixed race of European, African and Indian blood.

Capital.—Santo Domingo; population, 45,000.

CENTRAL AMERICAN STATES

DICTATORIAL REPUBLICS

NICARAGUA, COSTA RICA, HONDURAS, SALVADOR, GUATEMALA, AND PANAMA constitute a group of six Central American republics. All are small and unimportant, with unstable populations of mixed Spanish and Indian blood. Wracked by repeated petty revolutions and dictatorships, the group has forged ahead with fruit as a staple commodity, which has given rise to the nickname of "banana republics".

All of the Central American states have ambitious charters which promise liberty, equality, and fraternity; but these documents, patterned largely after the American constitution, have frequently been revised or set aside. American filibusters, or freebooters, have played an important part in the Central American wars; and the outfitting of Central American revolutionary armies was long a profitable industry in the United States. Central American presidents, following their overthrows, have sometimes fled to Europe with an ample supply of the public funds.

Panama boasts the famous canal, built by American enterprise. She declared her independence of Colombia in 1903, and has since been under the watchful and hygienic eye of Uncle Sam. For this reason she has prospered, in comparison with her Central American sisters whose climatic diseases have caused racial degeneration. A proposed canal through Nicaragua has, to date, failed to materialize after a century of talk and negotiation, but the Panama canal revolutionized trade routes, proving an inestimable gain to world commerce. It is one of the engineering wonders of the globe. The United States holds also an option on the Nicaraguan canal route.

Nicaraguan rebels, under the late General Sandino, carried on for years a bloody guerrilla warfare with the United States marine corps—in occupation to police the turbulent country and safeguard American business interests. American liberals glorified Sandino as a sort of George Washington, but the parallel appears to lack foundation. Nicaragua seems to have benefited by a little stability and internal order through marine-policed elections.

Once Spanish colonies, the Central American states are today virtual dependencies of certain influential fruit companies—to the putative advantage of all concerned. Yankee businessmen of the twentieth century are certainly preferable to the Spanish conquistadors and polyglot buccaneers of the seventeenth.

Guatemala is by far the most populous of the Central American states, with Salvador second. Coffee is a leading Guatemalan product, and many of the plantations are owned by Germans. There are also bananas.

Guatemala is bound to Salvador and Honduras by a convention of 1927, which unifies the foreign policies of the three nations. Salvador is a one-crop country, with coffee as the staple export. Smallest in area of the Central American republics, she is the most densely populated and probably the best governed. Honduras is a banana-raising country, with cattle-breeding as another leading occupation. Costa Rica raises coffee, bananas, and cocoa; and, like her neighbors, has valuable and varied mineral resources which are mined. Nicaragua, which has been more torn by dissension than the other Central American states, produces bananas and cocoanuts, and her forests contain mahogany, cedar, and wild rubber. Panama, too, raises bananas.

Central America broke away from Spain in 1821, and formed a united confederation until the middle years of the nineteenth century. There have been efforts to reunite the little republics in the interest of international harmony and orderly government, but to date they have failed. Central America is strongly Catholic, and all the states have been members of the League of Nations. Able men have been produced, such as General Sandino of Nicaragua and World Court Justice Guerrero of Salvador. Some of the dictators have proved beneficent, but in general Central Americans, with their scant education, are unfitted to participate in democratic administration—while many of their “Napoleons” and “Mussolinis” have turned out to be selfish and unscrupulous. Rich in vegetable and mineral resources, Central America has suffered largely from climate and the works of man.

PANAMA

President.—Harmodio Arias.

Area.—33,667 square miles, or approximately the size of Maine.
Population.—467,000, exclusive of the Canal Zone. More than half the population is of mixed blood, the whites numbering slightly over 50,000.

Capital.—Panama; population, 75,000.

Remarks.—The United States Government purchased from Panama, for ten million dollars, the right to construct a canal through her territory. An additional payment of \$250,000 a year is to be made to the Republic of Panama by the United States as long as the latter continues to operate the Canal. The Canal Zone, extending for five miles on each side of the Canal, is administered by the United States, but the cities of Colon and Panama remain under the jurisdiction of the Republic of Panama. The American Governor, however, has authority in matters pertaining to sanitation and quarantine in these two cities also.

NICARAGUA

President.—J. B. Sacasa.

Area.—49,200 square miles—exactly that of New York State.

Population.—638,119 (census of 1920), 650,000 (estimated in 1927), of whom about three-quarters are of mixed blood, and the rest Indians.

Capital.—Managua; population, 32,536 (census of 1926).

Remarks.—In 1916 the United States entered into a treaty with Nicaragua, under which, in return for three million dollars, this country acquired the Canal route through Nicaragua, as well as a naval base in the Bay of Fonseca on the Pacific Coast and Corn Island on the Atlantic Coast.

COSTA RICA

President.—Ricardo Jiminez Oreamuno.

Area.—23,000 square miles (estimated), or nearly half the size of New York State.

Population.—471,524. The proportion of Spanish blood is high.

Capital.—San José; population, 56,000.

SALVADOR

President.—Maximiliano Herando Martinez.

Area.—13,176 square miles, or more than that of Maryland.

Population.—1,460,000.

Capital.—San Salvador; population, 96,000.

GUATEMALA

President:—Jorge Ubico.

Area:—42,456 square miles, or almost exactly that of Virginia.

Population:—2,120,000, 60% of whom are Indians, speaking native dialects, and the remainder of mixed Indian and Spanish descent.

Capital:—Guatemala; population, 166,000.

HONDURAS

President:—Tiburcio Carias Andino.

Area:—Estimated at 46,332 square miles, or approximately the size of Mississippi.

Population:—860,000. The inhabitants are chiefly Indians with an admixture of Spanish blood.

Capital:—Tegucigalpa; population, 40,000.

SOUTH AMERICA



ARGENTINA

DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC

THE ARGENTINE, independent of Spain since 1816, is one of the three South American great powers; Chile and Brazil constituting the other two. The Argentine climate is temperate, and the people are energetic. Cattle ranching is the staple industry, along with wheat raising, and the wild *gauchos* of the pampas are favorite characters upon the North American motion-picture screen—as admirers of the late Rudolf Valentino well remember.

Buenos Aires is a magnificent Latin-style metropolis, with a presidential “pink house” to correspond to the “white house” of our own Washington. Paris fashions and costly Italian motor cars abound in Buenos Aires, beside destitution and social unrest. Argentina lacks the advanced social-service measures of her neighbor, little Uruguay. The Argentine plutocracy is perhaps almost as lavish as that of ancient and imperial Rome.

There is little Indian admixture in the people, and Spain and Italy have supplied the main racial ingredients. Italian immigration has been extensive, and a high type of Italian has “gone Argentino” with enthusiasm. Buenos Aires is a veritable melting pot, and its diverse races call themselves “Argentines” with an enthusiasm only equalled by the “Americans” of New

York City. Argentina has tremendous national pride, as exemplified by the public buildings in the capital.

Politics are run on a machine basis which reminds one of American municipal government, and the late President Irigoyen was a virtual Tammany Hall boss—with all of the benevolent Tammany virtues as well as the obvious Tammany defects. Since a coup d'état in 1930, affairs have been more carefully administered.

There are two congressional houses in the Argentine government, with obligatory voting under threat of a \$10 fine. The country is divided along federal lines, for there are 14 provinces, 10 territories, and a federal district. The Catholic church is strongly organized in the general scheme of things. Argentine women are far behind their sisters of Uruguay in feminist matters, but Argentine men are extremely political-minded in the sport-loving American way.

England aided in the Argentine struggle for independence from Spain, and English influence is still very strong in Buenos Aires through business houses, capital investment, and concessions. Argentina is sometimes called, in jest, a British dominion—so close are her commercial ties through beef exports and manufactured imports. Americans have been at a disadvantage in competition with the English for Argentine business, and the United States and the Monroe doctrine have never been popular in Buenos Aires.

There is a long tradition as to the "Yankee Bully" or "Northern Colossus"—and English tact and economic guile have sent even a Prince of Wales to solicit Argentine orders for British goods. In Buenos Aires society, Englishmen are clubmen; Americans are honest

fellows who had better stick to their work. Culturally, Argentina looks to Paris, and—to a lesser extent—to the German universities. There is a high percentage of Argentine Ph. D.'s, with fine minds and keen intellects. The Buenos Aires press is upon an especially elevated journalistic plane. The navy is excellent, and the army numbers 40,000.

President:—Augustin P. Justo.

Area:—1,153,418 square miles (roughly equal in area to the eleven Mountain and Pacific States of the United States).

Population:—10,904,022 (estimated 1929).

Capital:—Buenos Aires; population, 2,030,765 (census January, 1928).

B R A Z I L

DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC

THE UNITED STATES OF BRAZIL is the world's greatest coffee producer, and its language is Portuguese, whereas the other Latin American states speak Spanish. Brazil was a Portuguese colony which became independent in 1822, and existed as an empire until 1889—in which year a Brazilian republic was proclaimed. During the Napoleonic wars the Portuguese royal family fled to this giant colony and ruled the mother country from the Brazilian capital of Rio de Janeiro. It was, perhaps, the only case in history of the colony governing the colonizer.

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in farming and ranching (as in Uruguay and Argentina). The population of Brazil is predominantly Catholic. Education is free but not compulsory, and the percentage of illiterates is high. There are 3 billion coffee trees—three-fourths of the coffee in the world. Cocoa, sugar, rubber, and tobacco are other leading crops. In the tropical Brazilian “back country” there is a virtually unexplored wilderness, full of strange tribes, animals, and plants. It is a dangerous paradise for international exploration.

There are 20 federal states, on the American model, with a congress of two houses. Suffrage is universal, and includes women. Beggars, illiterates, soldiers, and monks cannot vote. The president serves for four years, and he may not be reelected for a succeeding term. A new and progressive constitution was in process of formation during 1934.

Sao Paulo, with its vast coffee plantations, is perhaps the most influential of the federal states. Minas Geraes and Rio Grande do Sul are also important in economics and politics.

Brazil has 50,000 soldiers and a small navy. Relations with the United States have always been extremely friendly, for Brazilians feel no special kinship toward Spanish America. Brazil followed the United States into the World War, although Argentina, Chile, and Mexico were neutral and, in the case of many of their citizens, pro-German. With their South American neighbors the Brazilians are on friendly terms, and they have sometimes acted as mediators in international disputes. Brazil was a member of the League of Nations, but withdrew after a disagreement in 1926.

Largest of Latin American countries in area and population, Brazil has had her share of revolutions and misgovernment. With increased modernization, she is on her way out of the depression caused by a great over-production of coffee—which brought in its train hardship and social unrest. Fourth largest country in the entire world, her capital-harbor of Rio is sometimes said to be the world's most beautiful sight.

President.—Getulio Vargas.

Area.—3,276,358 square miles (exceeding the area of the United States by 272,000 square miles).

Population.—41,000,000. This population is almost wholly native-born, there being only one and one-half million of mixed foreigners.

Capital.—Rio de Janeiro; population, 1,468,000.

CHILE

DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC

CHILE is, practically speaking, the Pacific seacoast of South America. Hers is a long, narrow strip extending from top to bottom of the continent. Her temperate climate and pure Spanish blood have made for progress, and large numbers of English and German business men have added to the efficiency of the country by becoming enthusiastic *Chilenos*. Even the limited Indian population, the Araucanians, are of an especially high type which would be a credit to any country. Chileans have, with reason, been nicknamed the "South American Prussians" because of their tendency to be spick-and-span about things in general.

The country became independent of Spain in 1818, and since that time has enjoyed a rather militaristic history. She has had wars with her neighbors, and internal troubles of marked severity. There have been disputes with Peru, Bolivia, and the Argentine, as well as with the United States. Communistic disturbances directed against foreign capitalists with Chilean investments, and revolts by the navy and air-force, have marred recent years; and in 1931 and 1932 a series of hectic régimes succeeded one another, based upon collective principles of economics and sociology. In latter-day Chile, militarism and communism have been closely linked in an unusual way.

The Chilean government consists of a two-house congress, chosen by literate males. The normal electorate is limited in numbers, and the Catholic faith is strongly entrenched in politics. The Chilean proletariat is inclined to be red, for men of vast wealth have heretofore exerted considerable influence in public affairs. A heavy income tax is intended to break their power and plutocracy. The American Professor E. W. Kemmerer revised and stabilized Chilean finances in 1926.

With Peru there has been a long dispute relative to the Tacna-Arica territory, seized by Chile from Peru and Bolivia in 1879. American public men have attempted to mediate from time to time, and a useless referendum was held amid great disorder in 1926. It has been recommended that both Chile and Peru renounce their claims in favor of land-locked Bolivia, which would thereby gain access to the sea. Chile has assented to this "in principle"—and the question has become less acute.

Chile supplies the entire world with nitrates, her greatest natural asset, and furnishes 90 per cent of the world's iodine. There is a vast copper output, and livestock and agricultural produce rank as important. All nitrate interests have been combined into *Cosach*, an enormous vertical trust half-owned by the Chilean government. It was capitalized at \$375,000,000 in 1931.

An excellent army of 25,000 men is maintained by means of a compulsory national militia; and the navy and air-force, English-trained in part, are large and extremely efficient. The army has a tradition of German training, and was strongly pro-German during the World War. America was not popular among Chileans trained to do the goose-step in spiked-helmets.

Santiago and Valparaiso are cosmopolitan seaports, and in them Spanish first-names combined with Nordic last-names indicate the Chilean power of racial absorption and assimilation. If the graceful Argentine is South European in her atmosphere, rugged Chile is vigorously North European. This "Prussia-on-Pacific" can hold her own, despite a small population and a harrowing, if transient, economic depression in the matter of nitrates. Chile has a certain hard-bitten and pugnacious spirit which Nordic races may at times disapprove of—but can always understand.

President:—Arturo Alessandri.

Area:—289,796 square miles (slightly greater than the eight South Atlantic States of the United States).

Population:—4,287,445. The population is almost entirely of European origin.

Capital:—Santiago; population, 712,533.

PERU

DICTATORIAL REPUBLIC

PERU WAS the ancient home of a remarkable Inca Indian civilization, which possessed many communistic features and an untold national wealth. Pizarro conquered the country for Spain in the sixteenth century, and the sword and cross of Christendom were firmly planted in what became the most important of the Spanish viceroyalties. Peru won her independence in 1824, and since that time has had a stormy history, interspaced with periods of great prosperity and stable progress.

There is a Peruvian congress of two houses, elected by literate males—which means a limited electorate, for the population contains a high percentage of uneducated Indians. Catholicism is the state religion, although there is freedom of worship. The Catholic creed has a monopoly in the matter of schools; but civil marriage is obligatory and divorce has been made easy by decrees of 1930. Peru is divided into 20 departments, ruled rather autocratically by government prefects. Foreigners may participate in municipal elections. Spanish is the official language of the Peruvian state, but Indian Aymara is widely spoken among the natives.

Cotton, sugar, coffee, and wool are leading agricultural products, and fifty enormous estates furnish the sugar crop almost *in toto*. Copper, petroleum, gold, and vanadium rank as leading Peruvian minerals, and gold deposits have been nationalized since 1930. The

Cerro de Pasco copper-mine has been operated continuously for three centuries of profitable exploitation. The noble and supercilious llama is the national animal. He is a sort of South American camel whose wool is highly prized for textile manufactures, and whose herding is a widespread occupation among the pasture lands of the rugged Andes mountains.

The Peruvian army numbers 10,000 men, trained along French and German lines; and there is a fair-sized Pacific navy, some of whose vessels are now obsolete. With Chile has existed a long dispute over the Tacna-Arica region, a serious matter in which disinterested Americans have attempted to mediate. Chile and Peru may both relinquish their claims in favor of land-locked Bolivia, after half a century of mutual ill-feeling. Peru followed the United States into the World War against Germany, and became an early member of the League of Nations at Geneva. In some of her dictators, Peru has been exceedingly fortunate—and in natural resources, she has been blessed.

President:—Oscar R. Benavides.

Area:—533,916 square miles (equals the combined area of Texas, Arizona, Nevada and Utah). 100,000 square miles are in dispute with Colombia, Ecuador and Brazil.

Population:—6,075,000 (approx. 1927, exclusive of Tacna). More than half of the population is pure Indian, the remainder being half-castes and whites.

Capital:—Lima; population, 176,467 (census 1921). Estimate 1928 with suburbs, 315,000.

URUGUAY

DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC

URUGUAY, WHICH broke away from Brazil in 1825, is socially the most up-to-date of all South American republics. Pensions, insurance, advanced family legislation, and other measures designed to promote public and private welfare have been adopted on European and Australian plans; and the country is moderate and progressive in all governmental matters.

The population is largely of Spanish origin, with little Indian admixture, and the climate is temperate and conducive to energy. Cattle-raising is an important industry, with the capital city of Montevideo as a business headquarters for ranchmen. There are mines and vineyards. Montevideo itself is a model municipality, in which the great Pan-American conference of 1933 was held.

Universal suffrage for men and women over 18, with compulsory voting and proportional representation, is a noteworthy provision of the electoral laws. Social-minded Uruguay was the first American state to recognize Soviet Russia, to be followed later by Mexico and the United States. There are two political parties—Reds (progressives) and Whites (conservatives)—and the dual-party system has functioned well, as it has in England and the United States.

Uruguay is often classed with the small democracies of western Europe in such matters as intelligent leadership and orderly civic spirit. She has been nicknamed the "South American Denmark".

The country has a two-house parliament; and although largely Catholic, since 1919 has enjoyed complete religious freedom. The executive power was divided between the president and a national council of nine men, six of whom represented the majority party and three the minority party. This divided authority was intended to guard against dictatorship. In 1934 there were liberal constitutional changes, carefully planned by skilled political scientists.

Uruguay has an army of 6,000 men on a peace footing. She followed America into the World War in 1917, and is a charter member of the League of Nations. In 1932 diplomatic relations were severed with Argentina because of a breach of international courtesy, but in general Uruguay maintains good relations with her South American neighbors. Hers is a merited self-respect.

President:—Gabriel Terra.

Area:—72,153 square miles, slightly larger than that of North Dakota.

Population:—1,941,000.

Capital:—Montevideo; population, 656,000.

V E N E Z U E L A

DICTATORIAL REPUBLIC

VENEZUELA MEANS “little Venice”—so called by the early pioneering Spaniards, who discovered some water-dwelling Indians said to remind them vaguely of Venetians. Venezuela gained her freedom first from Spain and then from Colombia, and set up independent

housekeeping in 1830. She produced the two noblest of South American liberators, Miranda and Bolivar, and honors their memories as her greatest citizens. England and Germany have "high-pressured" Venezuela on two occasions in the matter of debt collecting, and each time the United States has come to her rescue in the face of European warships and European enmity. Under President Cleveland, there was imminent danger of an Anglo-American war over Venezuela.

There is a two-chamber Venezuelan congress, with senators and deputies. Venezuela is a federal republic of 20 autonomous states, each with its legislature and local president. In addition, there is a federal district and two territories. Catholicism is the state religion, but religious toleration exists. An army of 10,000 and a miniature navy preserve national integrity. The federal presidency is semi-dictatorial in actual practice. Venezuelans, as a whole, contain a high percentage of Indian blood; and there is a slight Negro admixture dating back to slave days.

Petroleum is a major product; and gold, copper, and coal are mined. Livestock-raising, coffee, and cocoa are highly important agricultural occupations; and asphalt comes from Lake Bermudez for export to the well-paved United States. Oil might be said to dominate Venezuelan economics, while the army dominates Venezuelan politics.

Venezuela has been a loyal member of the League of Nations, which she joined in 1920. A boundary dispute with Colombia, referred once to the king of Spain and once to the president of Switzerland for mediation, has finally been amicably settled after a century of dis-

pute. Venezuela is by no means unprogressive when suitably guided.

President:—Juan Vicente Gomez.

Area:—393,874 square miles (as large as Texas, Louisiana and Arkansas combined).

Population:—3,026,878.

Capital:—Caracas; population, 135,253.

COLOMBIA

DICTATORIAL REPUBLIC

COLOMBIA is by no means “the gem of the ocean”, but she is an important South American state formerly called “New Granada”. She won her independence from Spain in 1819, and since that time has had a somewhat troubled history. Located in the extreme north of the continent, Colombia is the connecting link with Central America, adjacent to the republic of Panama which she formerly owned.

Colombia is divided in 14 departments, 2 intendancies, and 7 commissaries. There is a high percentage of Indian blood, and little or no European immigration. Catholicism is the national religion, but other creeds are permitted “if not contrary to Christian morals or to the law”. Education is not compulsory, but the university of Bogota dates back to 1572. It is only since 1932 that married women have been entitled to full control of their property.

There are two houses in the Colombian congress, and the president appoints governors for the departments and territories. Congress selects two substitutes,

one of whom would take over the presidency in case a mid-term vacancy should occur. Finance is supervised by a controller-general, responsible to the congress.

In 1903 Panama revolted from Colombian rule and became independent. There followed the construction of the Panama canal under American auspices. Colombians accused the United States of instigating the Panama coup d'état, and this controversy long embittered relations between Colombia and the "Yankee Bully". In 1914 the United States paid to Colombia an indemnity of \$25,000,000 for the canal zone. Until that time Colombia had firmly refused to recognize Panama independence.

Colombia and Peru came to blows in 1932 over the town of Leticia, a Colombian municipality which was seized by Peruvian volunteers. The Colombia-Peru boundary had been in dispute for a century, despite temporary settlements. Relations with Ecuador, also very bad, have been improved by Colombia. In the World War Colombia was inclined to be pro-German and anti-American. There is a Colombian army of 9,000, and a small navy for river-patrol and coast-defense.

Much of Colombia is not under cultivation; but the republic is the world's largest producer of mild coffee, and also turns out tobacco, cotton, cocoa, and bananas. Gold is found in all Colombian departments, and there are other minerals such as copper and lead. The Muzo emerald mines are government-owned, and the Chivor mines are American-owned. There are also iron and coal deposits, offering a favorable field for metallur-

gical industries. Politics are bitterly fought in Colombia, but rich natural resources serve as a compensation.

President:—Enrique Olaya Herrera.

Area:—444,000 square miles (estimated), equal to that of California, Oregon, Washington and Arizona combined.

Population:—8,200,000 (estimate), mainly whites and half-castes.

Capital:—Bogota ; population, 235,000.

BOLIVIA

DICTATORIAL REPUBLIC

BOLIVIA HAS had the finest military machine in South America, trained to perfection by General Hans Kundt, German war veteran and expert tactician. Under his guidance, Indian boys were taught to goose-step along the shores of Lake Titicaca, and young staff officers learned all the World War lessons of strategy and infiltration. The result has been renewal of an endless conflict with Paraguay in the Chaco wilderness, an area whose possession was disputed by the two states. There are valuable oil fields in the Chaco, and the Bolivians wished to push a pipe-line through the jungle to the Paraguay river.

They had the richest citizen in South America—Simon Patino, an Indian lead magnate, said to be illiterate but very canny in business matters. He built himself a marvelous marble tomb among the Andes mountains, and paid for the war with Paraguay as a matter of patriotism. Bolivia produces a quarter of the world's tin; and lead, copper, silver, and zinc are also mined.

Many of the native Indians are herdsmen who tend great flocks of sheep and cattle. Rubber is collected in the Bolivian forests.

Bolivia was named after Simon Bolivar, South American patriot who freed the country from Spanish rule in 1825. Half the population is Indian, only one-seventh is white, and all are strongly Catholic in religion. There is a two-chamber parliament, with a president and two vice-presidents. Suffrage is restricted to male property-holders, and the country is controlled by a small oligarchy which has experienced several palace revolutions. Bolivia is completely land-locked, having lost her Pacific coastline to Chile in 1883. Bolivia still hopes to gain access to the sea, just as Hungary does in Europe. Bolivians declared war on Germany in 1917, and their country was a charter member of the League of Nations.

President:—Daniel Salamanca.

Area:—500,000 to 700,000 square miles, depending upon boundary settlements.

Population:—3,000,000 (approximate), of whom 50% are Indians and 25% half-castes, the remainder being Negroes, whites and unclassified.

Capital:—Sucre; population, 35,000. La Paz, however, is the actual seat of government.

ECUADOR

DICTATORIAL REPUBLIC

ECUADOR MEANS “equator”, and her capital city is situated exactly on the equatorial line. Most of the inhabitants are Indians, and there have been a dozen

constitutions since Ecuador became independent of Spain and her South American neighbors in 1830. The Ecuador frontiers have never been determined exactly, and there are said to be six different boundaries according to six different authorities.

There is a congress of two houses—the upper house being given over to representatives of the various national occupations and professions, on the Italian fascist plan. Voting is limited to literate men and women; which means, in effect, a very limited suffrage, and rule by an oligarchy. The army of 5,000 men is Italian-trained, and there is a navy of one gunboat. In 1926 the American Dr. E. W. Kemmerer supervised the finance of Ecuador, making changes in the banking and taxation systems which proved most successful.

Agriculture in Ecuador turns out cocoa as its staple product, along with coffee, wild rubber, rice, and farm produce. There is petroleum, and a wide range of minerals, including gold and silver. The manufacture of "Panama" straw-hats is a leading industry, and there are some textile works. Ecuadorians are good Catholics, although the church plays little part in politics. Agricultural peonage—a variety of semi-serfdom—was abolished in 1918.

President:—Juan Martinez Mera.

Area:—118,627 square miles (est.), or somewhat less than New Mexico. Additional area in dispute with Colombia and Peru, however, amounts to about 160,000 square miles.

Population:—No definite figures can be given, but the population is estimated at about 2,000,000, the bulk being Indians, and those of mixed blood numbering 400,000.

Capital:—Quito; population, 100,000.

PARAGUAY

DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC

PARAGUAY HAS a remarkable history, although today her international status is unimportant. As a Spanish colony, she was ruled by the Jesuit Fathers who organized a communistic Indian state with some of the social institutions found today in Soviet Russia. The Jesuits discovered that music had an especial charm for the natives, and choral singing became a feature of their kindly régime. Primitive communism lasted into the nineteenth century, and Paraguay became independent in 1811.

Later came an era of remarkable military prowess, when little Paraguay under the dictatorship of General Lopez fought against Brazil, Argentina, and Uruguay simultaneously for five long years. Finally, with a casualty list of half a million men, Paraguay lost the great war in 1870. Her population was decimated, while her power was irretrievably weakened. Lopez was killed in the final battle.

Paraguay now possesses a two-chambered congress on the American model, while voting is confined to males over 18 years of age. The people are of mixed Indian and Spanish blood, speaking Spanish and Guaraní, and Catholicism is the established state religion. There are 4 million head of cattle in the country, and tobacco and sugar are raised in quantity. There is a peace-time army of 3,000 and a navy of two gunboats.

The country has been at war with Bolivia intermittently since 1928, over a disputed area of 100,000

square miles known as the Chaco. Neutral countries endeavored to mediate, urging a non-aggression pact, but without success. Trench and siege battles developed, and a conflict fought with scientific World War tactics continued for years. Foreign capital and foreign munitions interests received much of the blame for the struggle.

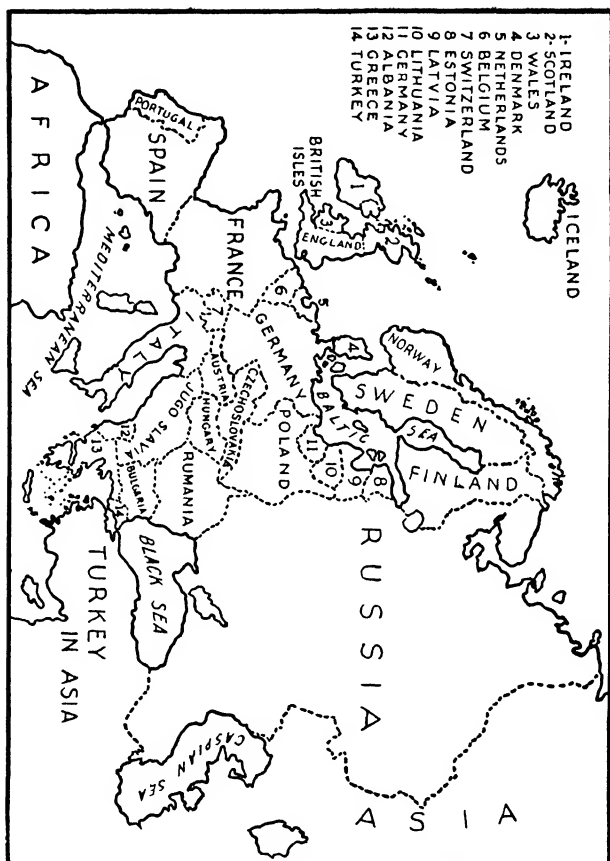
President:—Eusebio Ayala.

Area:—61,647 square miles (estimated), or slightly more than Georgia. Additional territory in dispute with Bolivia, called Gran Chaco, amounts to approximately 100,000 square miles.

Population:—851,000, Guarani Indians predominating.

Capital:—Asuncion; population, 92,000.

EUROPE



ENGLAND

DEMOCRATIC MONARCHY

THERE ARE three important dates in English history: 1066, 1588, and 1750. In 1066 came the Norman conquest, which led to the introduction of feudalism and to an aristocratic cleavage which is still noticeable in English life through the class-system. In 1588 a little known island in the North Sea defeated the Spanish armada, magnificent navy of the world's foremost military and colonial power. England leaped to fame and fortune with this triumph, and her seapower and widespread colonizing influence began to be felt in the councils of the globe. English freebooters, like Drake and Hawkins, were the indirect authors of the ballad "Britannia Rules the Waves".

After the armada victory there followed the Elizabethan age of Shakespeare and other cultural notables. In 1750, or thereabouts, came the industrial revolution through the introduction of steam and labor-saving machinery, leading to factories, railways, and all the modern mechanical devices. England was the original factory country, and her manufactures were dumped helter-skelter into the agricultural lands of both hemispheres. For long there were no manufacturing competitors to trouble the industrial island, which is said to boast more butlers than farmers.

Since the seventeenth century England has been a strictly limited monarchy, under her Hanoverian line of kings. These hereditary rulers now call themselves "Windsors"—an anti-German gesture during the World War. Parliament is the supreme power, with a constitution which consists of all laws ever passed. Since 1911 (when the hereditary House of Lords lost its veto) the House of Commons has been supreme, for the king's veto-power is never exercised. Historically, there have been two political parties in Parliament—Whigs or Liberals, and Tories or Conservatives. These alternated in office, depending upon parliamentary majorities, and the prime-minister automatically was leader of the majority party. After the war the Labor party came into prominence, supplanting the Liberals as the main opponent of conservatism. The Laborites, in coalition with the Liberals, took office in 1924 and 1929—though without any marked socialistic result.

The English parliamentary system has been copied, at one time or another, by nearly all of the European countries. Germany, Russia, and Italy have repudiated it in favor of formal dictatorships; but in other countries "English" parliamentarism still functions or attempts to function. Under this system, should the prime-minister receive a parliamentary vote of lack of confidence, he must resign or call a general election by way of appeal to the people. Should the election favor his party, he remains in office as its head. If the election goes against him, he is bound to resign in favor of the opposition. The system works well with two parties, or even three; but in many European states there are a dozen parties which must function in uncertain blocks

and alliances in order to hold office. In these multiple-party countries parliamentary chaos often results, and parliamentary majorities are sometimes unobtainable. England, America, Uruguay, and certain British dominions cling to two large parties—a happy medium for public expression of opinion.

The English Parliament at London contains members from Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland, as well as native sons. Cabinet members are individually responsible to its dictates, as is the prime-minister. The M.P.'s are generally able and conscientious men and women, and graft is almost unknown in English public life. Women play an active part as voters, committee members, and ministers. The House of Lords contains approximately 740 nobles (along with some churchmen), and its duties are mainly to suspend and to debate upon legislation which has emanated from the Commons.

England is well equipped with social legislation, as befits a factory country; and unemployment insurance, pensions, hygienic measures, and other up-to-date devices have done much to ameliorate the misery of a sport-loving and orderly proletariat. Income taxes are very high.

The English navy is now, by agreement, on a basis of parity with that of the United States. The army totals 200,000, much of it stationed in distant colonies. Tanks, airplanes, and mechanization in general have not been overlooked; but, in keeping with the English humanitarian spirit, the war-time death penalties for cowardice and desertion have been abolished. The aristocratic ruling-class holds important posts in the army

and navy (as well as the diplomatic corps) by an almost hereditary right—in contradistinction to the private soldiers of Napoleon, who were said to carry marshal's batons in their knapsacks. The feudal arrangement of great landed estates still exists in England, along with primogeniture and entail, but taxation since the war has done much to abate the feudal evil.

Scotland and Wales have no local governments, but are ruled directly from London. Northern Ireland (consisting of six counties) has parliamentary representatives at London (like Scotland and Wales), and a little home-parliament of her own at Belfast. The British dominions are now completely self-governing, under the statute of Westminster, and the king is the connecting link between England and her imperial "daughters". England and the dominions form the British Commonwealth of Nations—a vague creation with the same shadowy functions as the ex-Holy Roman Empire. The English Parliament looks after the genuine colonies, to greater or lesser degrees according to their varied statuses. England, along with France, is the most active member of the League of Nations; and the British dominions and India are members of it as well.

Coal and iron resources have made modern England, along with the navy and overseas trade. Hers is an empire built at the expense of Spain, Holland, France, Germany, and the weaker countries of the Orient. Yet, to pay England the highest of compliments, her severest critics are to be found at home. English fair-play was shown in its finest light by Edmund Burke's support of the Americans, W. T. Stead's support of the Boers, and Bernard Shaw's support of the Germans

and Russians, at times when such support was extremely unpopular. The British Empire, on the imperial race-course, has excellent four-wheel brakes of home-manufacture. Perhaps H. G. Wells could be accorded the title of *brakeman laureate*. Meanwhile the English aristocracy admits soap-barons and intermarries with gaiety girls, and so injects red blood into the true-blue strain. To this democratic attitude may be attributed the survival of a good-hearted, bemonocled English ruling-class. Its equivalents, in other European countries, have largely passed away.

There is an established Church of England, with aristocratic leanings, but little more than half the population is Anglican in faith. The submerged half is non-conformist—Protestants of many stripes, with the Presbyterians supreme in Scotland.

In October, 1931, a "hard-times" general election was held in England. It resulted in the formation of a coalition national government—containing Conservative, Liberal, and Labor elements—backed by a parliamentary majority of 5 to 1. Ramsay MacDonald, a Laborite, who had been prime-minister since June, 1929, was continued in office at the head of a mixed cabinet. He was assisted by Stanley Baldwin, a Conservative, and Sir John Simon, a Liberal. Most of the shattered Labor party went into opposition, combined with many Liberals. The Conservatives as a whole supported the national government. England left the gold standard in September, 1931, in the face of a monetary crisis, and behind the façade of Prime-Minister MacDonald the powerful Conservative majority controlled English policies. The English party system was func-

tioning on a pro-national government and anti-national government basis, with true party lines partially obliterated.

King:—George V.

Area:—94,284 square miles (somewhat less than the area of Oregon).

Population:—46,000,000.

Capital:—London; population, 7,849,000. London is the seat of Government, as well as being the capital of the entire British Empire.

DOMINIONS and POSSESSIONS

IN ASIA:—India, Ceylon, Straits Settlements, Federated Malay States, Hongkong, etc.

AUSTRALASIA:—Australia, New Zealand, New Guinea, etc.

AFRICA:—Rhodesia, Union of South Africa, Nigeria, British East Africa, etc.

EUROPE:—Irish Free State, Gibraltar, Malta, Cyprus.

AMERICA:—Bermuda (British West Indies—Trinidad, Bahamas, Barbados, Jamaica), Canada, British Guiana.

F R A N C E

DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC

LIBERTY, EQUALITY, FRATERNITY are the three slogans of France, dating from the French revolution of 1789. Liberty refers to the freedom of the individual in such matters as speech, religion, organization, the press, and personal affairs. Equality before the law is a second French essential, meaning that anyone of ability may hold public office and that all citizens enjoy equal rights. Fraternity is modern patriotism, and the brotherhood of all Frenchmen in the service of the nation.

France and the United States were the first protagonists of democracy; and along with England they are

today the mainstays of the democratic system and philosophy. A Paris taxi-driver can better any visiting duke. The French revolution was a triumphant challenge to the medieval feudal system, and it had two lasting effects. The great landed estates of the nobility were subdivided among peasant proprietors, who still constitute the most conservative class of petty capitalists in Europe; and equality of Frenchmen abolished the special privileges of the noble class in office-holding, courts of law, and exemption from taxation.

The present French republic dates from 1870, when the last monarch, Napoleon III, fled as a result of defeat in the Franco-German War. There are two legislative houses, Senate and Chamber of Deputies, and universal suffrage for men. Woman suffrage has not been granted, for it is feared by many that religious women would vote for Catholic and monarchist candidates to the detriment of the anti-clerical republic. Church and monarchy have been closely associated in French political history, and there is still a pretender to the French throne who dwells in Belgium. France is nominally Catholic, but freemasons and agnostics are numerous and religious skepticism is widespread. French conservatives are generally clericals; and French liberals are inclined to anti-clericalism.

The French president is chosen by both parliamentary houses in joint session and his term is seven years (as in Germany). The premier is responsible to a majority in the Chamber of Deputies (on the English plan), and cabinet changes are frequent in French politics. Numerous parties make for uncertain coalitions and alliances, and a parliamentary majority is some-

times hard to obtain. France is divided into 90 departments, each one under an omnipotent prefect nominated by the government. Government is strongly centralized at Paris.

France enjoys a happy balance between agriculture and industry. She did not suffer from the world depression as severely as England, Germany, or the United States. Farming is the chief occupation, but Lille is a center for metallurgical manufacture and Lyons for silk. There is an important French steel-trust called the "Comite des Forges." Lorraine has iron mines; and there are sugar and textile works. French wines are famous the world over. On the French coasts are several important commercial cities, and Paris is a mecca for women's fashions and the fine arts. The tourist trade alone is an important source of French revenue.

France has the second largest colonial empire in the world (exceeded only by that of England). French colonies total 4 million square miles, and have a population of 63 million natives. Algeria, Tunis, Indo-China, Senegal, Equatorial Africa, Madagascar, Somali Coast, Martinique, Tahiti, and several League of Nations mandates (formerly German or Turkish) are among the colonies of France, located in Asia, Africa, America, and Oceania.

The French army and air-force are the finest in the world, well trained and splendidly equipped with the latest military machinery. The army totals close to 600,000 men, nearly half of whom are colonials of varying colors. An elaborate system of concrete pill-box forts has been erected along the frontiers, sixty-feet deep and thirty-feet square, scattered approxi-

mately half a mile apart. They are said to be almost impregnable, and a sure national defense against Germany. The French navy is exceeded in size only by those of England, Japan, and the United States.

France is in alliance with Belgium, Poland, and the Little Entente; all these countries being interested in upholding the provisions of the Versailles treaty and the lesser peace treaties associated with it. The French won Alsace-Lorraine from Germany in the World War (taken by Germany from France in 1871), and French industry was entitled to exploitation of the Saar coal mines until 1935 (this former German fragment being placed under League of Nations jurisdiction for the time being). In 1935 the Saar will decide its own future by a popular referendum.

With her colonies, her comparative prosperity, her allies, and her large supply of gold, France is today in an exceedingly strong position. She enjoys profitable economic relations with Central Europe through interlocking directorates, and her military forces are the last word in preparedness. No European nation has so much national pride, or so little deadening unemployment proportionally.

Before the war France was in an uncertain condition. Since the great conflict she has blossomed out as she did under Napoleon, with prosperity, power, and prestige second only to liberty, equality, fraternity. Agriculture and industry, in the right proportion, plus ingenuity and hard-work have done much for thrifty France. The French peasant-proprietor, bulwark of the nation, is quite inimitable.

In 1934 there occurred severe rioting in tempera-

mental Paris, with resulting loss of life, as the result of the Stavisky scandal in the municipal pawnshop of Bayonne, a French city of the southwest. French investors had suffered due to the fraudulent dealings of Stavisky, an immigrant shyster, and government officials were involved. Monarchists and communists led the restless Paris mobs, and the Daladier ministry was forced to resign. Ex-President Doumergue was called from retirement to lead a new coalition cabinet, and disorder subsided after considerable bloodshed. It was a French "Teapot Dome" scandal, without real significance save as a protest against administrative graft; although minor constitutional changes were predicted to stabilize French political life.

President:—Albert Lebrun.

Area:—Total present area, 212,659 square miles (including Alsace-Lorraine, 5,605 square miles, and Corsica, 3,367 square miles). Slightly smaller than the combined area of Illinois, Indiana, Ohio, Kentucky and Tennessee.

Population:—41,928,000, inclusive of Alsace-Lorraine.

Colonies:—Total area, 4,681,000 square miles: (Asia, 335,000; Africa, 4,300,000; America, 36,000; Oceania, 10,000). Population, 61,115,000: (Asia, 24,500,000; Africa, 36,000,000; America, 528,000; Oceania, 97,000).

Capital:—Paris; population, 2,900,000.

GERMANY

DICTATORIAL REPUBLIC

THE MEDIEVAL Holy Roman Empire of a thousand years (800–1806) preceded the modern German Reich, organized by the genius of Bismarck in 1871 through unification of the German states. The king of

Prussia was then made hereditary German Kaiser, while the lesser German monarchs were retained as local rulers within their principalities. The German empire was autocratic and military, with the Prussian Junkers playing a leading part in public affairs, while the parliamentary Reichstag functioned largely as a debating society. The chancellor was responsible only to the Kaiser, and not to a Reichstag majority.

After the World War debacle, the last Kaiser, Wilhelm II, fled to Holland and a republic was proclaimed. A new constitution was framed at Weimar in 1919, of the most liberal character—with a chancellor responsible to the Reichstag, with woman suffrage, the referendum, proportional representation, labor safeguards, and an economic council. Freedom in all things was guaranteed, and democracy was firmly at the helm of the German ship of state.

The peace treaty of Versailles (1919) was most disastrous for the Reich. Germany lost one-seventh of her area, including valuable natural resources, and in addition she lost her navy, her merchant marine, and all her colonies. She was charged with \$33,000,000,000 in war reparations and was forced to renounce her special treaty rights in the Far East. Her army and navy were reduced to petty proportions, and were deprived of aircraft, tanks, gas, heavy artillery, submarines, and large battleships. Today the German army consists of 100,000 twelve-year professionals, under officers pledged to serve twenty-five years. France, Poland, Lithuania, Czechoslovakia, Belgium, and Denmark annexed pieces of German territory; and the German city of Danzig was compelled to become independent.

German feeling against the Versailles settlement was strong, and the new German republic—which was forced to accept the terms—lost prestige with many German people because of its “weakness”.

There followed the terrible monetary inflation of 1923–24, which ruined the German middle-class—patriotic holders of government bonds. Germany’s internal debt was wiped out, but so was the sturdiest class in the German community. The bankrupt bourgeoisie, hating both the Weimar republic and the Versailles treaty, flocked into the new Adolf Hitler movement which was bitterly opposed to the two “evils”. After a long series of political ups and downs, the Hitler movement finally came into power by a general election early in 1933. It was the end of the Weimar republic, after fourteen years of divided democracy and endless party squabbles.

The Hitler régime (nicknamed “Nazi,” a contraction of National-Socialist) abolished all other political parties, censored the press, the radio, and freedom of speech, and established a government by dictatorial decree. Liberals, socialists, communists, pacifists, and Jews were exiled or placed in detention camps for safe-keeping. The Nazis were especially anti-semitic, and there were undoubted excesses which led to anti-German boycotts throughout the world. Sterilization laws were perfected for mental defectives; and even the churches were impregnated with Nazi propaganda and anti-semitic dogma. Nazi extremists spoke highly of Wotan and Thor, in preference to study of the Hebrew prophets.

Hitler was faced with grave unemployment, and he

was said to have put 4 million men back to work during his first year of office. Public works, the displacement of Jewish jobholders, and an expansion of the Nazi storm-troop organization accounted for the job increase. These storm troopers, clad in brown and black shirts and numbering well over 2 million men, were equipped for street-fighting and strike-breaking if not for international warfare. There were conflicting reports as to whether Germany was rearming in defiance of the terms of Versailles.

In the fall of 1933, Hitler withdrew from the League of Nations (to which Germany had been admitted in 1926) and from an international conference on armaments, which was slow to acknowledge German claims to arms equality. There followed a German national referendum on Hitler and his policies, in which more than 90 per cent of the voters endorsed the Nazi chancellor. Censorship, of course, aided this Nazi electoral victory.

National patriotism is the keynote of the Hitler government in Germany. Frederick the Great is the patron saint of the Nazi movement, and Potsdam is its shrine; just as Goethe was the presiding genius of the Weimar republic which passed out of existence. Goethe was a poet; Frederick was a soldier. In this lies the telling distinction.

The Reichstag has become an all-Nazi assembly, with a few non-Nazi conservatives for variety. The party members concur in the dictatorship of their leader. Trade unions have been broken down, and strikes are illegal. Education is strongly patriotic and anti-semitic, and there is occupational discrimination

against the Jews (who number 600,000). State governments have lost their importance, and control now centers in Berlin through a system of Nazi viceroys who administer state affairs by dictatorial means. German federalism is dead, although the 17 federal states continue. There is but one parliamentary chamber.

German war reparations were practically abolished in 1932, and business conditions have gradually improved. Germany is highly industrialized, although there is mining and agriculture in addition. The Ruhr and Saxony are especially devoted to factory production, Essen being a center for heavy industry and Saxony for textiles. A semi-feudal system persists in East Prussia, but elsewhere agriculture is mainly based on peasant proprietorship—as in France. Nuremberg is a toy-center, while Hamburg, Bremen, and Lübeck are leading German seaports (as was Danzig). Munich is an artist's paradise, and also Nazi headquarters. Berlin is the second largest city in Europe, and a typical world metropolis.

Germany is two-thirds Protestant, and one-third Catholic. Luther, who launched the reformation in 1517, is not forgotten in his native country. The western and southeastern sections are Catholic strongholds, particularly the Rhineland and Bavaria. North, center, and east are mainly Protestant, including one-third of Bavaria. Berlin and Frankfort are cities noted for their Jewish bankers and men of commerce.

There is strong feeling among the Germans that kindred Austria should be joined to the Reich, and that an arrangement should be made to connect East Prussia geographically with Germany proper. To effect this,

some modification of the Polish corridor to the Baltic would be necessary. There is no German demand for Alsace-Lorraine, lost to France. In 1935 the Saar coal-mining district, formerly German and now under the League of Nations, will vote upon its own destiny—German, French, or a continuation of the League rule.

The Nazi régime, with its philosophical dictatorship, has borrowed much from Fascist Italy both in ideas and in colored shirts. Anti-semitism, which has appeared in Germany, is probably the chief difference. The Nazi party is organized on lines similar to the Communist and Fascist organizations; and Hitler, who was born in Austria, has assumed supreme power nominally for four years. Although the policies of the Nazis are strictly dictatorial, their spirit is democratic. What are left of the blue-blooded Prussian Junkers—there are said to be 13,000 families—have taken a back seat in the German political arena. Bourgeois nationalism controls the Reich.

In 1934 a threatened revolt of the 2 million Nazi storm troopers was ruthlessly suppressed by Hitler, a number of storm-troop leaders suffering execution, as well as some Catholics and monarchists.

Dictator:—Adolf Hitler.

Area:—185,889 square miles (including a water area of 4,259 square miles). The area of Germany is equal to Idaho and Wyoming combined. Germany lost, through the war, 27,275 square miles of territory, and nearly six and one-half million of her population.

Population:—65,000,000, exclusive of the Saar.

Capital:—Berlin; population, 4,200,000.

Colonies:—As a result of the World War, Germany's colonial possessions were lost to her, cessions thereof being made, under the Treaty of Versailles, to France, Great Britain, the Union of South Africa, Japan, Australia and New Zealand.

GERMAN MINORITIES IN EUROPE

IT IS interesting to note that of the 84 million German-speaking people in Europe, 20 million live *outside* the borders of the Reich. Of this 20 million nearly three-quarters dwell in the Danubian area, where their ancestors settled as colonists. A quarter, roughly, dwell in Switzerland, Alsace and Italy.

Austria had her humble beginnings in the region about Vienna as a ninth-century frontier outpost of Germans, organized by Charlemagne, to check the savage inroads of the Slavs and Magyars. She became the nucleus of a vast, multilingual colonial entity. The Hapsburg dynasty, the language, and most of the feudal aristocracy were German; and German colonists were settled in Slavic Bohemia, Magyar Hungary, Rumanian Transylvania, and other scattered enclaves. By 1914, 12 million of Austria-Hungary's 50 million inhabitants were Germanic. Germany had continued to be their spiritual mother country; and to this day the German farmers of southeastern Europe are called *Schwabs* by their Slavic neighbors—a reminder that these "aliens" once hailed from Swabia (Württemberg) in southern Germany. That early frontier settlement of Austria remains today as the Austrian republic, with a purely Teutonic population of 6 million.

Czechoslovakia contains well over 3 million Germans within her Bohemian and Moravian provinces. The native Slavic nobility, mostly Protestant, was killed or exiled during the Thirty Years War (1618–

48), and German Catholics were imported to take over their estates. They were bitterly hated by the plebeian Czechs; and their great manors were gradually subdivided among the peasantry in the years following the World War. There were, and still are, numerous German farm colonists; and a high percentage of the city commercial classes are Germanic.

The famous Saxon colonists of Transylvania, Lutheran to a man, were settled there in the twelfth century to populate districts threatened by barbarian hordes of invasion. They have made model settlers, and their villages to this day present a typically Germanic appearance. They have preserved their habits and customs intact through the long years, and passed from Hungarian to Rumanian rule following the war. They number less than a million highly respected agriculturists. In Hungary there are isolated German settlements, accorded liberal treatment historically, who number half a million. West Hungary, a lesser district almost entirely Germanic, was ceded to Austria in 1921. Jugoslavia, too, contains half a million Germans.

East Prussia today represents a German colony of 2 million souls encircled by a Slavic sea. It was severed from the body of the Reich by the Versailles treaty, which created the famous Polish corridor to give Poland access to the Baltic. East Prussia was originally a colonial enterprise of the crusading Teutonic Knights, who pushed eastward in the thirteenth century to Christianize the heathen Slav and Baltic peoples. The old Prussian Junker families, to which Bismarck and Hindenburg belonged, are descendants of these ancient knights. The knights met with a catastrophic

defeat at Tannenberg in 1410; and the knightly Hindenburg, strangely enough, avenged this humiliation on the same site by routing the Russians in 1914.

Two East Prussian seaports, Danzig and Memel, were detached from Germany following the war. Danzig (population 400,000) became a free city under the protection of the League of Nations. It is in economic union with Poland, although 95 per cent German. Memel (population 36,000) is an autonomous unit under the sovereignty of Lithuania. It was founded by the Teutonic Knights in 1252. Danzig dates back considerably earlier. Both cities, since the war, have had serious difficulties with their new Slavic partners. Western Poland holds a million rather unwilling Germans.

A quarter of a million Junkers, descendants of medieval crusaders, are to be found in Latvia and Estonia far up the Baltic shore. These were Russian provinces till 1918, and the German Baltic barons (entirely Lutheran) played leading parts at the Orthodox Russian court. Premiers and generals were Baltic Germans; and Hindenburg's Russian opponent at Tannenberg was named Rennenkampf. But, whereas in East Prussia the peasants are German as well as the Junkers, in the Baltic states the lower classes are Lett or Estonian and the upper caste alone is German. Riga, capital of Latvia, was once a prosperous port of the German Hanseatic League (linked with Hamburg, Bremen, Danzig, and Lübeck); and Dorpat university in Estonia is to this day an important center of German education and culture.

Perhaps the most interesting German colony of all is the autonomous German Volga republic—a distinct

state within the Soviet Union—whose population is 500,000. These Germans were settled on the far-away Volga by Catherine the Great in the eighteenth century, tempted thither by generous land grants and special privileges. They prospered, remaining purely Germanic; but later met with the stringent russification program of pre-war decades. The Russian revolution of 1917 saved them from wartime exile in Siberia. Under the Soviet régime, with its ideal of complete cultural self-determination, all rights have been restored and they have formed their own political entity—as sturdily Teutonic as Dresden or Nuremberg. Politically (in Soviet parlance) they are loyal to the working class of the world; culturally, to their German fatherland. The German Volga republic maintains in Berlin its own ambassador to Germany.



*Courtesy of
Columbia Pictures*

BENITO MUSSOLINI
Father of Modern Dictatorship

ITALY

DICTATORIAL MONARCHY

IN ANCIENT times a little city-state called Rome gradually expanded into what became the vast Roman Empire, which embraced the entire Mediterranean region, Gaul, Britain, South Germany, the Balkans, and more besides. A uniform language, prosperous civilization, and political-economic organism were attained under the Roman eagles which lasted well into the seventh century, hordes of barbarians from Central Europe and Central Asia finally causing Roman disruption. During the resulting Middle Ages, Italy was a jumble of petty states and mutually hostile cities, and it was only in the middle of the nineteenth century that Italian unity was finally achieved through the efforts of Mazzini, Garibaldi, and Cavour. Until that time, Austria had been the controlling factor in Italian politics; and the Austrian Prince Metternich had boasted that Italy was "only a geographical expression".

Italy entered the World War in 1915 on the side of the Allies, and received South Tyrol, Trentino, and Fiume as the reward for her intervention—all at the expense of Austria. But the war left the Italian peninsula in a state of chaos, with strikes, sabotage, and chronic disputes between capital and labor. There was economic hardship; and a virtual civil war was raging

in the north, where red workmen seized the factories and attempted to run them on a coöperative basis. The worried Italian bourgeoisie, backed by the great northern industrialists, flocked into a new Fascist party; and in 1922 the Fascists marched on Rome and occupied that city in the interests of dictatorship and so-called national unity. Italy, since her unification in 1861, had been a parliamentary democracy, functioning under liberal kings; but fascism, as planned by its founder, Benito Mussolini, was a negation of all liberal and democratic principles. Mussolini, who became premier in 1922, was an ex-radical who believed in "direct action", and he put into operation many "direct-action" features of government.

He abolished freedom of speech and of the press, outlawed all political parties save that of the Fascists, jailed and exiled many anti-Fascist leaders, and ruled by dictatorial decree. He attempted to promote great efficiency and order in public services, and exalted national patriotism above all other public and private virtues. Most important of all, he instituted a "corporate state" in which all Italians were to be represented on an occupational basis, through guilds of employers and employees in every branch of industry. The Council of Corporations is divided into 13 categories: employers in heavy industry, agriculture, commerce, air and sea transport, land transport, and banking; employees in the same lines of work; and professional men. Strikes and lockouts are forbidden, and arbitration of economic disputes is compulsory under the auspices of government labor courts.

Whereas in Russia the government has eliminated

private employers in favor of state capitalism, in Italy the employers have been retained under stringent governmental regulation. The American N.I.R.A., in many of its code features, is strikingly similar to the economic fascism of contemporary Italy.

In Italy the Fascist Grand Council is the supreme authority, and of this body Mussolini is chairman—as well as Italian premier. Its powers are absolute. There is an appointed senate, made up of celebrities with life-long memberships, and a chamber of deputies. These two houses constitute the Italian parliament. To elect the chamber, the Grand Council selects a careful list of 400 Fascists—to which the Italian people vote “yes” or “no”. If they vote “yes”, the list of 400 is elected and becomes a chamber of deputies. Should a majority vote “no” (which never has happened), another Fascist list would be presented for a second referendum. There is a limited male suffrage, confined largely to trade-guild members and to tax-payers; and the Fascist party itself has a membership of little more than a million. Italian cities are ruled by Fascist podestas, or bosses, appointed from Fascist headquarters in Rome.

Practically all Italians are nominal Catholics; and education is now compulsory to the age of 14. Fascism has stressed physical education for girls and boys through its highly organized youth organizations. Mussolini and the Pope have generally been on good terms, although many Fascists are strongly anti-clerical, and although Catholic pacifism is not always in agreement with Fascist nationalism.

The Italian army totals approximately 250,000 men, and there are close to 400,000 Fascist black-shirt mi-

litia of uncertain military value. In addition, there are 50,000 carabinieri, 30,000 colonial troops, and large numbers of secret political police similar to those active in Russia. The Italian army is reported as under-mechanized, but the aviation corps is one of the world's strongest, especially in the seaplane branch. Italy is almost all coastline, and her navy is able and a rival to that of France despite Italian poverty.

Northern Italy is industrial, and southern Italy is agricultural, broadly speaking. Turin and Milan are great factory centers, with textiles, automobiles, and sugar and cheese as typical products. Italy is very poor in natural resources, without iron, coal, or petroleum; although she has developed hydro-electric power as best she can. Shipping is an important national occupation; and grain, vines, and olives keep the landmen busy on their farms. Fascism, which originated in Milan, is particularly strong in the industrial north of the peninsula. Venice is famous as a city of canals and lace, and Florence for its art and culture and renaissance past. Indeed Italian art, climate, and natural beauties bring visitors from all over the world, and the tourist traffic is a major Italian industry. The late-medieval renaissance, with its great cultural and artistic contributions to all mankind, was peculiarly Italian. Sculpture, painting, literature, and the humanities always have thriven in the colorful Italian peninsula.

Italian foreign relations with France and Jugoslavia have not been cordial under fascism. Italy has a rapidly increasing population, and the French colonies of North Africa are coveted by Italy for settlement. With Jugoslavia there has been friction over the Adriatic

coast, and France and Jugoslavia are in a close anti-Italian accord. Fascist Italy has never been in close harmony with the League of Nations, although she is a charter member; and with Germany there is rivalry based on the orientation of little Austria. With England the Italians are perforce on terms of amity, for the English navy could blockade the Italian peninsula with ease in time of trouble. Italy, however, desires the English naval base of Malta. American immigration laws have shut down on Italian influx, although many Italians go to find homes in hospitable South America, especially Argentina. Italy is on close terms with Hungary, Bulgaria, and Albania, and has tended to uphold these lesser powers in their opposition to the World War peace treaties.

Succession to the Italian throne is no longer strictly hereditary through primogeniture, for the Fascist Grand Council has announced its right to select future monarchs—with the possibility of a coming Italian republic. The German Nazi movement, and many less important dictatorial régimes, are imitations of the world's outstanding bourgeois dictatorship—that of Benito Mussolini. He is often said to have "cleaned up Italy".

Dictator:—Benito Mussolini.

Area:—Pre-war, 110,632 square miles, or approximately that of Nebraska. Post-war, 119,700 square miles, due to acquisition of territory under Treaty of Versailles. The area of Italy's colonial possessions (Eritrea, Somaliland and Libya) is estimated at 875,000 square miles.

Population:—41,176,000. Colonial possessions, 2,481,000 (estimated).

Capital:—Rome; population, 1,008,000.

POLAND

DICTATORIAL REPUBLIC

POLAND, DURING the Middle Ages and for centuries thereafter, was a leading European power. She was governed by an extensive oligarchy of nobles, who elected the king in a sometimes haphazard fashion. One noble, by his veto, could block the legislative power of the whole aristocratic group—and there often resulted a virtual anarchy. The Polish state gradually weakened, and late in the eighteenth century it was forcibly subdivided between Russia, Austria, and Prussia. The extinction of Poland was an historical outrage, and Polish patriotism continued to smoulder beneath the national ruins.

The Poles fared badly under foreign domination, and with the collapse of the three master-powers at the close of the World War the Polish people were reunited under the blessing of the Allies. The Poles had not lost their old militancy, and there followed a major conflict with Soviet Russia; a boundary dispute with Czechoslovakia; endless disputes with Germany over the Polish corridor, the city of Danzig, and the mines of Upper Silesia; and a bitter controversy with Lithuania over the city of Vilna (which Poles had seized and held). Of the 30 million Polish citizens, one-third were non-Polish in blood and restless under Polish rule. The minority races were German, Jewish, and Russian.

Poland did not treat her minorities with the generosity of Czechoslovakia, and her government (democratic in theory) evolved into an ironclad dictatorship

under old Marshal Joseph Pilsudski (1926). There is one important government party which controls the country, and a number of feeble little political groups which do not constitute a genuine parliamentary opposition. Censorship and martial law are put to use when minorities become unruly, and the army has great prestige. There are two parliamentary houses, and women are allowed to vote for members, as well as men. Many elections have been disorderly, due to the conflict of races and to the policemanship of the major government party of Pilsudski.

The country is strongly Catholic, with Lutheran, Hebrew, and Orthodox minorities. Agriculture is the staple occupation, often under a semi-feudal system of great landed estates owned by the aristocracy or "pans". Elementary education is compulsory, and there is a rapidly increasing population due to a very high birth-rate. Mining and textile-manufacture are important industries, with Warsaw, Lodz, and Cracow as industrial centers. Gdynia, located in the Polish corridor, and the free city of Danzig are Baltic seaports which serve the vast Polish interior.

Poland is highly militarized, with an army of 300,000 men, the latest French equipment in tanks, guns, and airplanes, and a small Baltic navy. Poles are natural soldiers, and French training has perfected their tactics and strategy. Poland has been in an alliance with France against Germany. The Polish corridor, which cuts off East Prussia from the body of the German Reich, is still in dispute; and Lithuania continues to claim her lost city of Vilna, which was seized by Polish irregulars in a coup d'état of 1920. The Upper Silesian

frontier is uneconomic because of its dislocation of mining properties adjacent to the border, German and Polish mine villages and pit-heads being inextricably tangled by the dictates of a post-war racial referendum. Danzig, independent but in economic union with Poland, is another source of constant friction. A non-aggression pact with Soviet Russia was signed in 1933, and another with Germany in 1934.

Dictator:—General J. Pilsudski.

Area:—150,000 square miles (equal to joint area of New England, New Jersey and New York).

Population:—32,132,000.

Capital:—Warsaw; population, 1,178,000.

SPAIN

DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC

SPAIN HAS been reborn. Prior to her revolution of 1931, she was backward and her institutions were out of date; but the new régime has shown a progressive spirit which disregarded the medieval past.

In the sixteenth century Spain was the mightiest of world empires, with her widespread American colonies, her magnificent navy, and her famous infantry squares. Untold wealth was hers, from the American mines, and a great peninsular culture had developed. But religious fanaticism, bred of many centuries' struggle with the Mohammedan Moors, led to a ruthless expulsion of "heretical" minorities. This bereft Spain of her best brains and business ability, and the result was stagnation. Defeats by the Dutch and English, rising

empire-builders, and the break-away of the Spanish-American colonies, marked final steps in dissolution. The republic has meant revival, and intelligent toleration. In 1931 Alfonso XIII was peacefully voted out of office. He departed abroad in one of history's most bloodless revolutions—a high tribute to Spanish national character.

Spain is a “democratic republic of workers of all classes”, united by liberty, equality, fraternity. There is a one-chamber parliament, or *Cortes*, chosen by universal male and female suffrage. War can be declared only subject to conditions outlined in the covenant of the League of Nations; and the Spanish president may be voted out of office at any time, if 60 per cent of the *Cortes* demand it. Divorce and religious freedom are now legalized, and illegitimate children enjoy the same legal status as legitimate ones. Education is partly nationalized, and certain religious orders have gone into exile as much church property was transferred to the state.

Spanish women, enfranchised by the republic, have had a tendency to vote clerical-conservative, despite their new liberties. France, realizing this danger to liberal institutions, has never granted female suffrage. The Spanish province of Catalonia, which speaks a semi-French, was long in conflict with the monarchy; and the republic has granted Catalonian autonomy, with the Catalan language made official. Catalonia has its own president and parliament, and also delegates in the Spanish central parliament at Madrid. Catholicism is still the leading Spanish creed, but its position is unofficial.

The year 1492 is the most important date in Spanish history, for at that time the invading Moors were finally defeated by the Spaniards at Granada, and Columbus sailed for the New World to build up a Spanish empire. Since those days Spain has had a strong military tradition, although she was neutral in the World War. The Spanish army numbers more than 150,000 men, and the navy is of moderate size. The republic has cashiered a large number of useless officers who held office through graft under the monarchy. The Guardia Civil and carbineros, military police of very high efficiency, number 40,000 "cops" under stringent discipline.

Agriculture is the leading Spanish industry, and your Spanish peasant is a singularly proud and self-respecting fellow. There is a slow subdivision of the great landed estates in progress; and olives, wines, fruit, livestock, and grain are leading products. Spain is rich in minerals, with iron, coal, copper, lead, zinc, and silver. Barcelona, in Catalonia, is a great manufacturing center with textile works and the Hispano-Suiza automobile plant. The Barcelona proletariat is inclined to be communist or syndicalist, and as anti-republican as are the monarchist elements.

Spanish relations with neighboring countries are very harmonious. Since the establishment of the republic, on a French model, ties with France have been close. Spain, along with Poland, just misses being a great power; but Spain works for world peace with a will, and her new democracy has brought her closer to the lost daughters of South America. Her empire is shrunk to some worthless African tracts, but this

many Spaniards consider to be a blessing. Internal progress and thorough integration are the Spanish republican keynote.

Bull-fighting is still in high favor, but in certain details it has been rendered more humane. The younger generation, furthermore, is reported to be turning to football and tennis in preference to blood-letting. Despite charges of cruelty, Spaniards are kindly and hospitable to a fault. With the passage of time, toreadors may go the way of the Alfonsos.

President:—N. A. Zamora.

Area:—190,050 square miles. (Slightly more than combined areas of New England, New Jersey and New York.)

Population:—28,719,000, inclusive of the Balearic Islands, and the Canary Islands.

Colonies:—Spanish Morocco, Ifni, Rio de Oro, and Spanish Guinea. Area: 129,470 square miles. Population: 786,391 (1923).

Capital:—Madrid; population, 896,511.

R U S S I A

DICTATORIAL REPUBLIC: INDUSTRIAL DEMOCRACY

RUSSIA is the only large-scale communistic and proletarian state in the history of the world; and in Russian society the common workman is exalted in somewhat the way that a duke or a millionaire is looked up to in capitalistic countries of the west. Soviet Russia has eliminated the private employer, and has substituted the government as a universal capitalist in all business and economic projects. Coöperation has supplanted the motive of private profit, under a rigid censorship, a

powerful secret police, and an alleged dictatorship of the proletariat.

Russia emerged from comparative barbarism under Peter the Great, early in the eighteenth century, and took her place among the great nations by defeating the military power of Sweden. She continued under the Czars until March, 1917, when a revolution in Petrograd brought in a democratic government and the abdication of Nicholas II. Russian democracy carried on falteringly until November, 1917, when the liberal Kerensky was overthrown by the Bolshevik (communist) party of Lenin and Trotsky. Democracy in Russia had lasted eight months, preceded by the dictatorship of czarism, and followed by the present dictatorship of communism.

The first act of the Bolsheviks was to make a separate peace with Germany and Austria at Brest-Litovsk; for the Russian people hated the World War, and Russian defeats and hardships were contributing factors in the risings of 1917. The next three years were occupied by a terrible civil war, in which the red armies of Trotsky finally defeated the whites (anti-communists), who were assisted by the Allies with men, tanks, ships, and money. Poland, Finland, Lithuania, Latvia, and Estonia broke away from Russia to become independent capitalistic republics, and Russia lost the province of Bessarabia to Rumania. But the red régime in Russia triumphantly survived.

Today Russia is governed by a pyramid system of soviets, or proletarian councils. Village and factory soviets are chosen by the vote of working men and women over 18. Village soviets elect delegates to the

county soviet; the county soviets elect delegates to the provincial soviet; and the provincial and town soviets to the national Congress of Soviets. The Congress of Soviets elects a Central Executive Committee which is the governing legislative body, or parliament. The Central Executive Committee elects a cabinet of commissars, which functions as the executive power of the government. There is a president and a premier.

The only legal party in Russia is the Communist organization. It is very exclusive, with a membership of less than 4 million tried Communists of both sexes. The Communist party organization pyramids up parallel to the official soviet system; and the two pyramids are closely connected, as many men are members of both—especially at the top. The *real* power in Soviet Russia is exercised by the unofficial “political bureau” of the Communist party, consisting of a dozen members. These men do not necessarily occupy government positions, although most of them do so through a sort of interlocking directorate.

Lenin, who died in 1924, was the first chairman of the Bolshevik “political bureau”. Stalin is chairman today. The bureau is a *multiple* dictator, which corresponds to Mussolini in Italy, or to Hitler in Germany. Russia is not governed by a one-man dictatorship; and when a chairman of the “political bureau” dies or resigns, another is carefully chosen by the omnipotent party. In Russia, as in Tammany Hall, it is not the man that matters. It is the party machine.

Russia’s official name is the “Union of Socialist Soviet Republics”—a federation consisting of Russia proper (including Moscow and Leningrad), the

Ukraine, White Russia, Transcaucasia, Tazhikistan, and the Uzbek and Turkoman republics. Some of these states are, in turn, subdivided into lesser autonomous areas, such as the German Volga republic. There are dozens of languages and races in the Soviet Union, and each of them is allowed complete liberty in such matters as cultural and linguistic expression—common denominators being communism and the Communist party. Communism is a universal system intended to pervade the entire world, and the Soviet Union—with its varying peoples—is treated as a world in miniature.

The official religion of Russia is anti-religion, or atheism. There are still many members of the old Orthodox church of the Czars, as well as Protestants, Jews, and Mohammedans. Their religions are laughed at by the government, and caricatured, but are seldom persecuted. Religious instruction is forbidden to children under 18, and priests are not allowed to vote; while a fair number of Orthodox churches have been torn down or converted to other uses by the government planners.

Agriculture is still the chief industry, with well over half the crop acreage included in vast government farms and collectives, although there are still many peasant proprietors who are sometimes distrusted as "capitalists". Grain is the chief product, but cotton, livestock, and tobacco are important as well. Forestry and lumbering occupy large numbers of Russians, while iron, manganese, copper, and coal are mined extensively. Oil wells are a source of great national wealth, and a temptation to foreign capital.

Russia is being gradually industrialized by a series

of five-year plans, of which the second is in operation. Mechanization and factory production have been promoted under the direction of foreign engineers, and it must be remembered that factory workmen (who are essentially communistic) have been the chief support of the Soviet régime. The Congress of Soviets gives the urban proletariat a delegate for every 25,000 voters, and the rural peasantry a delegate for every 125,000 voters! Peasants, of course, vastly outnumber the factory workers of the cities. But, from the viewpoint of the Soviet government, the more factory workers the better.

The red army is of such high quality as to be equalled only by the armies of France and Japan. At least 70 per cent of the Russian soldiers are members of the Communist party, a distinction in itself, and the fighting services are exclusively manned by proletarians. The soldiers are well treated, carefully armed, and highly educated, and service is considered as a privilege rather than a duty. Each red regiment is equipped with every sort of weapon, and operates as an independent unit. The red army totals 600,000; and there is a weak and rather ramshackle navy, mostly in the Baltic. The air-force is very strong, with 750 machines and a tried personnel. Gas warfare is well developed, and there are British-built tanks.

Russian territory extends from Poland and the Baltic to China and the Pacific, and from the Arctic Circle down to Persia and Afghanistan. Russian relations with her western neighbors have not been good; but through neutrality pacts and treaties of non-aggression, conditions have improved along the European frontiers.

In the east, relations with Japan have not been of the best; and Hitler in Germany has met with the profound disapproval of Soviet Russia. With France, anti-Russian since 1917, close friendship has been established; and French engineers are said to be taking the place of German engineers in many of the Russian industrial projects.

The United States recognized the Soviet government in 1933, after a delay of sixteen years. The more important European countries, and Japan, had done so in the early 1920's with fair commercial results. The foreign trade of Russia is organized as a government monopoly, exporting grain and lumber, and importing vast quantities of machinery for the five-year plans. Russia, instead of unemployment, has actually experienced a labor shortage since 1928.

Dictator:—Communist Party's Political Bureau.

Area:—The Old Empire of Russia had an area of 8,764,586 square miles. The area of the Soviet Union (U. S. S. R.) is 8,063,771 square miles (1924), or about two and a fifth times the area of the United States.

Population:—160,000,000.

Capital:—Moscow, 2,781,000. The former capital, St. Petersburg, was renamed Petrograd in the early days of the war, but, under the Soviets, was again renamed, and is now officially "Leningrad."

HOLLAND

· DEMOCRATIC MONARCHY

HOLLAND FREED herself from Catholic Spain in the sixteenth century, and in the seventeenth century was the most important of world empires, with colonies

which extended from New York to Capetown in South Africa. Her navy and merchant marine were supreme at sea, and her soldiers had defeated the famous Spanish infantry in the Low Countries. Holland today has an enormous colonial area, largely in the Dutch East Indies, where Java and Sumatra furnish sugar and rubber upon an ultra-profitable basis.

The Netherlands is a capitalistic paradise for the money-making middle-class, who were running the country upon lines of modern capitalism while the rest of Europe was feudal. The Dutch aristocracy, who correspond closely to their Junker confreres in Prussia, have never led in Dutch affairs; and today they live quietly upon their landed estates, while Amsterdam deals in diamonds, gold, and international securities, and Rotterdam in shipping.

Holland is a Puritan stronghold of Protestants, and yet one-third of the population is Catholic. The Dutch Junkers and the ruling house of Orange are Protestant, as is the intangible tempo of Dutch life. There is much court ceremony, largely imported from abroad, but a stolid and unimaginative populace takes little stock in such proceedings. There are two parliamentary chambers, with universal suffrage.

The country is not heavily armed, as is her Belgian neighbor, but in case of wartime invasion the Dutch dykes can be opened so as to flood the country to the discomfort of German or French or English invaders. The Dutch language stands midway between English and German, and the Frisian dialect is closely akin to the vocabulary of Chaucer and our ancestors.

The Dutch tricolor flag—red, white, and blue—is

the direct parent of the French, Czarist Russian, South African, and New York City standards. Historically the Dutch were always republicans, and it has been only in the last century that democratic monarchy was adopted. This water-logged country of windmills and cheeses produces the sturdiest of seamen. Its soldiers may be evaluated by the Old Guard of Napoleon who, in part, were Holland-born. The Hudson river valley, to this day, bears the marks of a phlegmatic civilization emanating from the Netherlands.

A great Dutch engineering feat is the progressive drainage of half the Zuyder Zee, a body of water covering 1,350 square miles with a 19-mile opening into the North Sea. Huge dams have been turning the trick. The project was launched in 1918, as a fitting epilogue to the World War, though planned long years before. The arable land of Holland will be increased by 900 square miles; and Dutch agriculture, based on peasant proprietorship and looking for export markets, will profit greatly thereby. Dairying, sugar-beet raising, fishing, and shipbuilding are important occupations in the lowlands, and the production of famous Dutch tulips adds to the color of the world.

Queen:—Wilhelmina.

Area:—12,582 square miles (almost exactly that of Maryland). (Including inland waters, 13,205 square miles.)

Population:—8,061,000.

Capital:—The Hague (seat of the Court), 450,000; Amsterdam (legislative), 766,000.

Colonies:—Dutch East Indies, Dutch Guiana, Curacao Islands, New Guinea; total area of the colonies is 949,028 square miles. Total population, 60,000,000.

BELGIUM

DEMOCRATIC MONARCHY

BELGIUM IS one of the most highly industrialized countries in the world, and has been so since medieval times. Dominated historically by the Spanish, the Austrians, and the Dutch, the Belgian area achieved its independence in 1830, and since that time it has progressed along contemporary lines.

The language question is pertinent to Belgians, for half the country speaks French and the other half clings to Flemish, a form of Dutch. The rivalry has been acute; so much so, in fact, that certain Flemish leaders welcomed the German invasion of 1914 as a sort of Teutonic liberation from Latin influence. The Germans stressed the importance of Flemish culture, and even favored an independent Flemish province—to be in close affiliation with the German Reich. Since the World War the Flemish language has received an increased recognition in education and government, but Flemish autonomy is still an issue.

The Belgian government of two houses is liberal, and the royal family has been well liked because of its war record and democratic ways. The Catholic faith is strongly entrenched, although anti-clerical freemasonry and anti-clerical socialism are forces to be reckoned with in Belgian politics. The workers are well organized, and their trade unions exert a strong influence in social and economic matters.

The Belgian army is comparatively large (75,000), and carefully trained, while a line of concrete defensive

forts protects the frontier against invasion from Germany. Relations with Holland have never been of the best, but with France there is a close Belgian accord in military and cultural matters. The African Congo is an enormous Belgian colony, and Antwerp is noted for its commercial and shipping connections. The Belgians are lineal descendants of Charlemagne's Franks (Teutons who gave their tribal name to France), and the Flemish language is Frankish brought down to date.

Flemish weavers of the dark ages were the progenitors of the red factory workers of today, and labor agitation in Belgium has a medieval origin. German reparations have righted the damage inflicted upon Belgium by the war, and the rebuilt Belgian villages are things of architectural beauty—in marked contrast to the reparation work done in devastated northern France. Belgian reconstruction was completed within six years of the war's end, and Belgium gained the districts of Eupen and Malmedy at Germany's expense. Incidentally, much of northern France (including the great industrial city of Lille) is semi-Flemish.

In 1934 King Albert of Belgium, beloved because of his World War heroism and democratic instincts, was killed in a mountain-climbing accident. He was succeeded by his son, Leopold.

King:—Leopold III.

Area:—11,752 square miles (somewhat larger than Maryland).

Population:—8,159,000, including Eupen and Malmedy.

Capital:—Brussels; population, with suburbs, 840,000.

Colonies:—Belgian Congo. *Area*: 909,654 square miles; *Population*: 8,500,000.

Remarks:—Reconstruction in the devastated areas of Belgium was practically completed in 1924, at an estimated cost of \$1,900,000,000.

SWITZERLAND

DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC

SWITZERLAND IS the oldest of European republics, founded in 1291 by the union of Uri, Schwyz, and Unterwalden—the three original cantons. Today there are 22 separate cantons in the Swiss confederation, each with its democratic local government. In several small cantons there is no parliamentary machinery, all male citizens assembling for direct participation in government (as in a New England town meeting).

The greatest lesson that Switzerland teaches is the coöperation of races. She has three of them—German, French, and Italian—and three official languages. The races dwell together in perfect harmony, all considering themselves "Swiss" primarily. Swiss people feel no special attachment for their German, French, or Italian relatives, despite the growth of modern nationalism. Switzerland is a miniature league of nations, and a good example of racial friendship for the great League of Nations (located in Swiss Geneva) to study. Geneva, incidentally, was a cradle of the Protestant reformation in the sixteenth century, and of a series of later reform movements.

There are two houses in the Swiss parliament, with a federal council of seven members which acts as the executive power. (The president of this council serves for one year.) There is universal voting for men, but no woman suffrage. The Swiss executive, like the American, is elected for a fixed term of years. It is not dependent upon a parliamentary majority, contrary to

the practice of democracies which function on the plan of the English Parliament. Popular referendums on public questions are in general use, upon the demand of 30,000 voters or eight cantons—a direct participation in legislation by the Swiss people.

Switzerland is the historic home of European liberty, and has served through centuries as an asylum for European political refugees. Her people are mostly Protestant, even in the French cantons. More than 70 per cent of the Swiss speak German. There is an efficient national militia, well trained in mountain warfare and defensive tactics. The Swiss can mobilize a quarter-million men if need be.

Cheese and condensed milk are the most important agricultural products. Watch-making and hotel-keeping are leading occupations. There are more than two million visitors to Switzerland annually, who come for sight-seeing, mountain-climbing, and winter-sports. There are health resorts, and wineries, and nearly 8,000 hotels.

The country is strongly humanitarian, and a haven for the humanitarians of all nations. The socialistic Second International is located at Zurich, and Geneva is crowded with uplift societies. The international red-cross flag is the Swiss national emblem in reverse colors.

When Alsatians and Tyrolese yearn for union with Switzerland, as they sometimes do, it must be admitted that they yearn wisely and with good reasons.

President.—Marcel Pilet-Golaz.

Area.—15,976 square miles (slightly larger in area than Maryland and Delaware).

Population.:—4,066,000; (71% German, 21% French, Italian, 1½% Romansch).
Capital.:—Berne; population, 111,783.

IRISH FREE STATE

DEMOCRATIC DOMINION

IRELAND WAS first penetrated by the English in the twelfth century, and there have followed 800 years of strife and misunderstanding between two peoples totally unlike in character and religion. The Irish have risen against English exploitation so often, in their long history, that any list of Irish revolts becomes monotonous. Under Elizabeth and Cromwell large numbers of English and Scotch Protestants were settled in the north of the unhappy island, and their descendants to this day refuse to coöperate with the real Catholic Irish. Hence Northern Ireland continues in direct union with England and the London Parliament, refusing to join the modern Irish Free State.

During the World War there was a savage Irish rising for independence, and after the war the Irish and English carried on a guerrilla struggle which equalled all the "Belgian atrocities" ever perpetrated. In 1922 Ireland was granted dominion status and complete self-government by a frustrated England which had come to long for some domestic peace.

The Irish dominion considers itself a virtual republic, and Gaelic (along with English) is the national language. There is only one parliamentary house, and

universal suffrage for men and women. Proportional representation is used intelligently, and to great advantage, in Irish politics. A governor-general represents King George V, but he has received little or no attention. There is a small Irish volunteer army, organized on the German rather than the English model. Irish coastal defense is still undertaken by the English navy.

In Irish politics there is one group which favors the present dominion status, and another which advocates complete independence. Eamonn De Valera is the independence leader, and his policies as president have included abolition of the oath of allegiance to the English king and the suspension of land annuity payments to England. Many vast landed estates were subdivided among Irish peasants in the late nineteenth century, and the land barons were compensated by the English government. Since that time the Irish farmers have been paying back the English government, bit by bit, for land taken from their ancestors by English invaders.

De Valera opposed this, and heavy English tariffs were placed upon Irish dairy products (which found their chief market in England) by way of imperial retribution. Anglo-Irish relations were worse than ever, for agriculture was the Irish national industry and English discrimination against Irish produce was a heavy blow. Republican sentiment in the Free State increased, and the Irish republicans felt closely drawn to the Indian nationalists of Gandhi—also at “war” with England. Meanwhile, the Irish Free State was functioning as a model of good government and self-respecting progress.

President.—Eamonn De Valera.

Area.—26,592 square miles (slightly more than the area of West Virginia).

Population.—2,972,802.

Capital.—Dublin; population (with suburbs), 450,000.

PORTUGAL

DICTATORIAL REPUBLIC

PORTUGAL IS a rather small country with a huge colonial empire, handed down from her fifteenth-century days of greatness. She was a semi-Spanish fragment which failed, in medieval times, to join other fragments in the formation of the united Spanish nation. Even Portuguese bull-fighting differs from the Spanish technique, and the two peninsular countries have never been friends. Portugal has been a close ally of England for centuries, and Portuguese troops rendered England some assistance in the World War on the western front.

In 1910 Portugal turned republican, and expelled the house of Braganza. Troubled times followed, and Portuguese "revolutions" succeeded one another with a more than South American frequency. An able dictatorship followed in 1926, managed by an experienced general and by a remarkably able economist. The harmonious pair balanced the budget, promoted public works, and braved a world depression with confidence—while the more advanced democracies were shivering in their shoes. There was little unemployment in Portugal and the dictatorship was genuinely popular.

General Carmona and Dr. Salazar, economist extraordinary, were men of the hour.

Brazil is an overgrown Portuguese child, just as America is an overgrown English brat. When Napoleon was threatening Portugal, the royal family moved to their Brazilian possession—from which they ruled the mother country. It was a case unique in history, of a colony exploiting the exploiter.

Portugal is solidly Catholic, although the 1910 revolution against monarchy was free-masonic in its leadership. Port wine, incidentally, is named after its home city of Oporto—a key to an important Portuguese activity. Portugal, as populous as Austria, is seldom heard from; yet she glories in her overseas possessions, and in her former international splendor.

Dictator:—Antonio Oscar de Fragoso Carmona.

Area:—35,490 square miles (about that of Indiana).

Population:—6,234,000. Inclusive of Azores and Madeira: 6,698,000.

Colonies:—Cape Verde Islands, Guinea, Principe and the St. Thomas Islands, and Angola, Mozambique, Goa and Damoa (India), Timor (Malaysia), Macao (China), and the Azores and Madeira (part of continental Portugal). Area: 965,754 square miles. Population: 9,000,000.

Capital:—Lisbon; population, 594,390.

N O R W A Y

DEMOCRATIC MONARCHY

NORWAY, SMALL in population but rich in history and achievement, is a model state with an intelligent citizenship. Fishing and shipping, combined with farming, are

the national occupations—and have been since the early Viking days of adventure and conquest. The Norsemen and Normans were transplanted Norwegians who, with the kindred Danes, harried the seas under the guidance of Wotan and Thor.

Norway once belonged to Denmark, and later was connected with Sweden, breaking away from the latter country in 1905. There is a Norwegian king with unassuming ways, but all titles of nobility were done away with early in the nineteenth century. There is one parliamentary house divided into two sections which sometimes function separately, sometimes as a unit. Parliament in 1905 elected King Haakon VII to the throne, which constituted a democratic basis for monarchy.

Norway coöperates with Sweden and Denmark in international affairs, and the Scandinavian trio have exerted a moderating influence in the heated debates of the League of Nations. All three countries were wisely neutral in the World War, although Norwegian and Danish sentiment favored the Allies, while Sweden was firmly pro-German.

Norwegian education is upon an advanced basis, and woman's rights are accorded fully—in line with the primitive sex fairness of the Nordic races. Norwegian skiers and Norwegian explorers are national exports, and world-wide respect is an import which rights the balance-sheet of trade.

Disarmament is nearly realized through a small national militia of home-guards, and an equally small navy designed for simple coast-defense work. Norway once attempted the prohibition experiment, along with Finland and America, but it did not succeed according

to dry expectations. Well-regulated state control took its place, apparently with more satisfactory results.

g.:—Haakon VII.

Area:—124,964 square miles (about the size of New Mexico).

Population:—2,817,124.

Capital:—Oslo; population, 258,520. (Capital was formerly called Christiania.)

S W E D E N

DEMOCRATIC MONARCHY

DURING THE seventeenth century Sweden was the most efficient military power in Europe, and the Swedish soldiers of Gustavus Adolphus were the backbone of Protestantism in the religious wars of the period. Like the Danes and Norwegians, the Swedes are of the old Viking stock—tall, blond, and blue-eyed. Today they are highly educated, hard-working, and thoroughly self-respecting. Their country is a stronghold of the Lutheran faith, and their politics are singularly free from graft and despotism.

Sweden at various times has controlled Norway, Finland, our own Delaware, and sections of northern Germany and the Baltic states. Russian Peter the Great ended Swedish supremacy early in the eighteenth century, and since then the Swedes have led a model existence as a second and third rate power whose national life is not dependent on battles and conquests. Swedish influence has tempered acrid disputes in the League of Nations, Sweden having had the good sense to remain neutral during the World War (along with the other Scandinavian countries).

There are two parliamentary houses, elected by universal suffrage in which women vote as well as men. The Swedish electoral system functions under a form of proportional representation, which insures a fair apportionment of members of parliament. The king, as in other democratic monarchies, is primarily a national pet; while the premier exercises executive powers. Sweden has treaties with Norway, Denmark, and Finland which outlaw war among these Scandinavian countries for twenty years.

The majority of able-bodied Swedes excel in outdoor sports. One-third of the Swedish population lives in the towns. Stockholm, the capital, is nicknamed the "Venice of the North" because of its lakes and bridges. Forestry and the manufacture of wood pulp are notable industries, while agriculture and Baltic commerce rank as important. Swedish iron mines are among the richest in the world, and 90 per cent of the European ore supply comes from the Swedish Lapland pits. Germany, which has lost much of her iron resources to France, imports an enormous amount of Swedish iron for her factories. The Swedish government takes a proprietary interest in iron production, in coöperation with private capital.

Sweden has a national militia in which service is compulsory, and a small but efficient navy which faces the larger (and more inefficient) fleet of Soviet Russia across the Baltic. Sweden has not had recent military experience, though many Swedish volunteers served with the German and Finnish armies during the World War. Sweden is the largest of the Scandinavian states; she faces east, whereas Norway and Denmark face

west. Socially more aristocratic than her Viking neighbors, Sweden is politically ultra-democratic.

Swedish liquor-control functions under the famous "Bratt system". Only one concern is permitted to manufacture and sell liquor at wholesale, with 120 local companies distributing to individuals and hotels. Citizens must have a license-book to buy (generally one book to a family), which they sign on each purchase. Since 1912 alcoholic consumption has decreased 50 per cent. In most Swedish localities, license-holders are entitled to 4 liters of spirits per month (about 7 pints). The system is respected, and has worked with true Swedish honesty and efficiency.

King:—Gustaf V.

Area:—173,157 square miles (land surface, 158,500 square miles—about the same as California).

Population:—6,141,671 (census of 1930).

Capital:—Stockholm; population, 520,000.

D E N M A R K

DEMOCRATIC MONARCHY

DENMARK is a Lutheran Scandinavian kingdom, with what is probably the best educated population in the world. Once a home of marauding Vikings who carried fire and sword along the European seacoasts, Denmark became later an important military and naval power, and a rival of Sweden in Baltic affairs. She was a loyal ally of Napoleon, and her epic defense of Copenhagen against the fleet of Admiral Nelson (1801) will live forever in the annals of martial glory. It was a black

day in the history of the English navy, which greatly outnumbered the Danes.

Denmark today is practically disarmed, for this wise descendant of the Vikings has come to believe in peace and arbitration. She observed, with profit, how little the resistance of Belgium accomplished in 1914 when pitted against the mighty strength of Germany—and decided not to do as Belgium did in time of trouble. There is a tiny Danish coast-defense fleet.

Two parliamentary houses are elected by universal male and female suffrage. The king is purely ornamental, and labor is strongly organized for political action. There is a permanent court of arbitration, and a mediation institute for the settlement of economic differences between employers and employees. Dairy products are an important source of national revenue, and Danish soil is divided into a multitude of small farms which coöperate effectively in marketing and other activities. The union of small holdings into larger ones is interdicted by law, and the Danish peasant proprietor (like that of France) is a force to be reckoned with in all public questions. Many Danes engage in shipping and commercial pursuits, for the call of the sea is still felt by the blue-eyed inhabitants of Scandinavia. It is in their blood.

In 1919 the victorious Allies offered the German province of Schleswig-Holstein to Denmark. A referendum was held by the inhabitants, and the northern area voted to join with Denmark. The Danes have given their new possession a splendid administration, which redounds to their credit. Denmark had previously lost Schleswig-Holstein to Germany, in 1864.

The Danes sold the Virgin Islands to the United States in 1917, but they still possess Greenland.

King:—Christian X.

Area:—16,604 square miles (slightly less than joint area of Massachusetts and New Hampshire).

Population:—3,500,000. Almost entirely Scandinavian.

Capital:—Copenhagen; population (with suburbs), 771,000.

Colonies:—Greenland. *Area*: 827,300 square miles; *Population*: 16,820 (all Eskimos, except for perhaps 300 Danes). Greenland's trade is a state monopoly of Denmark.

FINLAND

DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC

FINLAND SPEAKS a Mongolian dialect, akin to Estonian. She was under Swedish influence until 1809, at which time she became an autonomous duchy within the Russian empire—where she was far from happy. Finns were remarkable for their progressive tendencies, and they were pioneers in granting woman suffrage (1907) and other modern devices for good democratic government.

In 1918 came independence from Russia and the formation of the present well-administered state. There is a one-chamber parliament, elected by both sexes under an efficient system of proportional representation. Alcoholic prohibition was tried as a noble experiment, but it ended in failure and repeal by popular referendum.

The Finns are Lutherans, and among the upper classes some Swedish is still spoken. Finland generally

associates herself with the Scandinavian countries of Norway, Sweden, and Denmark. Finnish relations with Soviet Russia have not been of the best, and Finnish communism was suppressed only after a bitter struggle during the first years of independence.

Education is stressed in Finland, and schools are provided for every conceivable occupation—all well attended. There are three universities and 133 preparatory institutions. Primary schools take all children from 7 to 15 years of age. Agriculture is the chief industry, although there are some large factories manufacturing wood, iron, and textiles.

President:—Pehr Evind Svinhufvud.

Area:—149,641 square miles. (Equal to joint area of New England, New Jersey and New York.) More than half of this territory is covered by forest, and one-tenth by water.

Population:—3,667,000. Two and one-half million Finns, the remainder Swedes and a few Laps.

Capital:—Helsingfors; population, 234,000.

BALTIC STATES

DICTATORIAL REPUBLICS

THE THREE little Baltic states of Lithuania, Latvia, and Estonia were freed from Russia by the World War. Independent in medieval times, they have also had Swedish and Polish connections. Their history and institutions are so parallel that they can be treated jointly in one chapter.

The Baltic trio are predominantly agricultural, and peopled by a hardy peasant stock which speaks a Mon-

gol dialect in the case of Estonia, and a semi-Slavic in Lithuania and Latvia. Prior to the war Latvia and Estonia were locally dominated by German-speaking barons, great feudal landholders whose ancestors settled there as medieval Teutonic Knights. These German barons played an important part at the Russian court and in Russian government services, although they were Lutheran in religion. In Lithuania the local landbarons were Polish, generally speaking. German and Polish aristocrats were alike oppressive; and the Russian government, from above, was perhaps most oppressive of all.

With freedom came a struggle against communism, which was suppressed in all three states by 1920. The barons were dispossessed of their feudal privileges, and the native Ests and Letts took control of the countries which properly belonged to them. There was a redistribution of farm land, and peasant holdings were increased. The three states now function under single-chamber parliaments, through universal suffrage. Latvia is politically the most liberal.

Riga in Latvia is an important seaport and commercial center, while Memel in Lithuania is devoted to similar pursuits. Memel was a German city, obtained as a Lithuanian harbor following the war. Germans and Memelites are by no means reconciled to the Lithuanian annexation, and there has been friction between the city administration and the Lithuanian central government. Lithuania is also on bad terms with Poland, which seized the Lithuanian city of Vilna by a sudden post-war coup d'état. Relations between the three Bal-

tic countries are harmonious, and in certain matters there is close coöperation.

It is interesting to note that quick-witted Letts have worked in large numbers in the Soviet O.G.P.U., or secret police. They were also the finest fighters in the red armies during the Russian civil war of 1919. Their resourcefulness was more pronounced than that of the red Russians whom they served. The German Baltic barons, once so powerful, are today impotent.

Latvia and Estonia are Lutheran, while Lithuania is largely Catholic in faith. Agriculture is the chief occupation, but there is as well a limited amount of factory industry.

LITHUANIA

President:—Antona Smetona.

Area:—21,000 square miles (estimated). About the size of New Hampshire and Vermont combined.

Population:—2,000,000 (estimate), exclusive of Vilna district.

Capital:—Kovno (temporarily) ; population, 110,000.

LATVIA

President:—Albert Kviesis.

Area:—25,000 square miles, or about the size of West Virginia.

Population:—1,900,000, 80% of whom are Letts, the remainder being Russians, Jews and Germans and Poles.

Capital:—Riga ; population, 378,000.

ESTONIA

President:—Constantin Paets.

Area:—18,355 square miles (estimated). Approximates area of Vermont and New Hampshire.

Population:—1,120,000.

Capital:—Tallinn (formerly Reval) ; population, 133,600.

A U S T R I A

DICTATORIAL REPUBLIC

AUSTRIA is a miniature Germany, whose language and civilization were thoroughly Germanic when what is now Prussia was a congeries of barbarous Slavic tribes. Charlemagne founded the Austrian state as a frontier post against eastern barbarians in the ninth century, and the oriental flavor of present-day Austria is noticed by western visitors.

Following the break-up of the Austro-Hungarian Empire in 1918, at the close of the World War, the German-speaking districts were lumped together into what is now the Austrian republic, consisting of 9 federal states. Hungary and Czechoslovakia became independent, Galicia went to Poland, Transylvania to Rumania, Croatia to Yugoslavia, and Trieste and Fiume to Italy. Austria proper wished to join Germany, but this was vetoed by the victorious Allies under the terms of the peace treaties.

Austria became a head without a body, cut off by tariff walls from the new states with which she had formerly been joined in political and economic union. Bad times become chronic, and only foreign loans and food shipments kept alive a nation unwillingly independent. The federal city-state of Vienna was strongly socialistic, and it inaugurated a remarkable régime of city-planning and city-control whereby the finest workers' tenements in the world were put into operation. The Viennese proletariat began to enjoy all the social advantages of Soviet Russia, without the handicaps of a

stringent censorship and secret police. Socialists of the world came to regard Vienna as a model experiment.

The Austrian countryside, divided into rural peasant states, was strongly Catholic and conservative, and politically in opposition to liberal Vienna. With the triumph of the Hitler movement in Germany there arose a third division of the population—Austrian Nazis, desiring close coöperation with German nazidom. The pro-Italian Chancellor Engelbert Dollfuss, Catholic leader, took office in 1932 and assumed a strongly anti-German stand.

Dollfuss arranged a dictatorship which supplanted the very liberal institutions of the federal republic, with initial support from the Austrian army of 30,000 men. German propagandists were barred from Austria, and the Austrian Nazis were held in check to the delight of France, Italy, and the lesser states who feared Austro-German union. Dollfuss firmly believed that an independent Austria could exist economically; and in the back of his mind, supposedly, was a reunion with Catholic Hungary, or a restoration of the Catholic Hapsburg dynasty to the Austrian throne.

Dollfuss introduced a sort of occupational-guild government, similar to that of the Italian corporate state, in order to abate the class struggle of proletariat against bourgeoisie. His relations with Nazi Germany were of the worst. The Austrians, pacifists internationally, seemed genuinely fond of internal dissension. Nazi against Catholic against socialist was the order of the day, with dictatorship in the saddle on the Italian plan.

In 1934 the clerical Dollfuss government attacked the Viennese socialists, and four days of bloody civil

war resulted. The Viennese and their wives defended their tenement homes and their institutions with great heroism against gas, airplanes, and heavy artillery; but they were finally defeated. Viennese socialism was outlawed, the Dollfuss Fatherland-Front organizations inflicting cruel reprisals despite the constitutional legality of the Vienna city administration. The magnificent city tenements were badly damaged by Dollfuss artillery, and Dollfuss dictatorship came into full force. Five months later the Austro-Nazis staged an unsuccessful revolt in which Dollfuss was killed.

Agriculture is the leading Austrian occupation, with potatoes, turnips, grains, and sugar beets as leading products. Coal, iron, lignite, and other minerals are mined, and there are textile and tobacco factories. Austria is a tourist center, and music and Alpine sports attract annual visitors to the little republic. The Austrian working class, along with the English, is said to contain the kindest and best-humored people in all of Europe.

President.—Wilhelm Miklas.

Area.—32,396 square miles. Approximately that of Vermont, New Hampshire, Massachusetts and Connecticut.

Population.—6,526,661.

Capital.—Vienna; population, 1,868,328. Vienna was also formerly the capital of the Austro-Hungarian Empire.

CZECHOSLOVAKIA

DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC

CZECHOSLOVAKIA is a lineal successor to the medieval kingdom of Bohemia, which lost her independence to

Austria in the early seventeenth century—a triumph of the Catholic Hapsburgs over Protestant Czechs. Upon the breakup of the Austro-Hungarian Empire, at the close of the World War, Bohemia regained her freedom with the addition of Moravia, Silesia, Slovakia, and Ruthenia. The new Slavic state was christened “Czechoslovakia”, and she was to function under the guidance of two of Europe’s ablest administrators—President Masaryk and Foreign Minister Benes. Since the close of the war, Czechoslovakia has proved herself a model country.

More than one-third of the Bohemian population spoke German instead of Czech, and at first the 3 million Germans were strongly opposed to Czechoslovak rule. There were many Hungarians in Slovakia, and the Czech and Slovak and Ruthenian dialects differed from one another, although they were all Slavic. But the common sense of President Masaryk and the tolerant democracy of the country tended to weld together these diverse linguistic elements. German ministers appeared in Czechoslovak cabinets, and proportional representation gave all races a chance to participate in the government. School facilities were provided for each linguistic group in generous measure. The chief dissidents have been some German Nazis in Bohemia.

Bohemia is highly industrialized, with breweries, glass and textile works, and great steel plants. Slovakia is backward, largely agricultural, and strongly religious; while the little Ruthenian section is even more behind the times. Progressive Czechs do their best to promote education, sanitation, and modern methods in the outlying districts—where their efforts are not al-

ways appreciated by local fundamentalists. School attendance is compulsory between the ages of 6 and 14; and there are four Czechoslovak universities and four high-grade technical schools.

The population is largely Catholic, but there is a non-Catholic Czechoslovak church which seceded from Rome in 1920. Bohemia was historically Protestant, and the Protestant minority is still extremely influential in governmental circles. The army is highly efficient, numbering 150,000, backed by a strong air-force and by the famous Skoda gun works of Pilsen.

Czechoslovakia is a member of the Little Entente, along with Rumania and Jugoslavia, and is in alliance with France. Czech relations with Hungary are not of the best, for Hungary covets the Slovak area which she lost by the war. The Nazi movement in Germany has not improved German-Czech relations. Toward Soviet Russia the Czechs are harmoniously inclined, and also toward Poland.

There are two parliamentary houses in Czechoslovakia, and universal suffrage for men and women. Political parties are generally organized along racial lines, but the communists are strongly entrenched in the Czechoslovak chamber of deputies.

President.—Thomas G. Masaryk.

Area.—54,877 square miles. Approximate to that of Illinois.

Population.—14,750,000, 65% are Czechoslovaks, 23% are Germans, and the rest are Magyars, Ruthenians, Poles, Jews, aliens, etc.

Capital.—Prague; population, 850,000.

HUNGARY

DICTATORIAL REPUBLIC

HUNGARY is a monarchy without a monarch; hence automatically a republic. She is governed by a regent, Admiral Horthy, who assumed dictatorial powers in 1919 and has grimly held on. Before Horthy took control in Hungary there was a brief communist dictatorship under Bela Kun, which was overthrown in a violent civil conflict.

Under the Austro-Hungarian Empire, Hungary was autonomous and very influential in formulating imperial policies. Her troops and statesmen were the best in that polyglot entity, and her people were probably the finest element in the varied imperial population. Hungary became independent in 1918, as the war ended, but by the terms of the peace treaties she lost Slovakia to Czechoslovakia, Transylvania to Rumania, and Croatia to Jugoslavia. She has never become reconciled to her heavy territorial losses, and is today the special opponent of the Little Entente—composed of the three countries which profited so handsomely at Hungarian expense.

The Hungarians are non-European in origin, and speak a Mongol dialect akin to Finnish and Turkish. The inhabitants of this Magyar (or Hungarian) state are part Protestant, part Catholic in belief, and the Hungarian nobility is the most aristocratic caste left in Europe. The feudal system still exists among the Magyars in modified form, based on great estates and benevolent paternalism, and grain and livestock are

the chief Hungarian products. Hungary, like Czechoslovakia, is landlocked—for the Hungarian port of Fiume, on the Adriatic, was lost to Italy after the World War. Nevertheless the Magyars are friendly to the Italians, and Horthy and Mussolini coöperate closely in the field of international affairs.

There are two houses in the Hungarian parliament, with a strong government party exercising virtual control despite some small groups of parliamentary dissenters. Voting is arranged to the advantage of the dictatorship, is limited, and often non-secret—a check to the untrammelled expression of electoral preference. There is a premier who serves under the dictator, and the landed aristocracy is extremely influential in the direction of Hungarian affairs. German settlements exist in Hungary, and the German minority is well treated by the good-hearted Magyars.

The Hungarian army numbers 35,000 volunteers, and there is neither navy nor aviation corps. Hungarian cavalry, since the days of Attila's mounted Huns, has been considered the finest in Europe—but today cavalry, along with knighthood, is a trifle out of date. Hungarian sentiment for a return of lost territories is strong, and "Nem, Nem, Soha" (no, no, never) is the Hungarian answer to losses incurred by defeat in the unhappy autumn of 1918. There is much talk in Hungary of a restoration of the Hapsburgs, reigning royal family in the old Austro-Hungarian Empire of pre-war times.

Dictator:—Admiral Nicholas Horthy.

Area:—35,900 square miles. Slightly less than that of Indiana.

Population:—8,688,350.

Capital:—Budapest; population, 1,006,140.

JUGOSLAVIA

DICTATORIAL MONARCHY

JUGOSLAVIA is torn by a race question—a conflict between her two branches of the southern Slavs, the Serbs and the Croats. Serbia won her independence from the Turks in the nineteenth century, and she received kindred Croatia from the defunct Austria-Hungary at the close of the World War. Slavonia, Mohammedan Bosnia, and Montenegro were other Serbian annexations at the time, and continuous friction resulted from the union of divergent civilizations.

Croatia was Catholic and western in its alphabet and viewpoint; while more primitive Serbia was Orthodox and accustomed to the eastern alphabet and eastern ways. Croatia looked to Rome and Vienna for her culture, and Serbia to Constantinople and Moscow in matters of life and faith. Croatia, dominated by the Serbs, longed for federal autonomy, and some Croats even favored independence. Parliament became a bear-garden in which violence was in general use, and in 1929 the king declared a dictatorship of national unity. Separatism was rigorously banned, and censorship under a police régime became the order of the day.

There was only one political party permitted in Yugoslavia under the dictatorship, the Croatian nationalists and Serbian liberals being forbidden to organize in opposition. The king, Alexander I, acted as dictator with military support—and his action made him one of the few absolute monarchs left in our prosaic world. Prior to the dictatorship, Serbia had functioned as a

peasant democracy similar to Bulgaria. There is no aristocracy, and bourgeois capitalism is not highly developed among the Yugoslav agrarians. The only Yugoslav aristocrats are members of the recognized government party, which holds the country together.

Jugoslavia has a navy, including submarines, which operates on the Adriatic. Many of the ships were inherited from the extinct Austro-Hungarian fleet, along with the Austro-Hungarian naval bases on the Adriatic coast. There is a large army (200,000 men), well trained and equipped. Relations with Italy have not been good, due to territorial disputes affecting the Adriatic region, and the Italian and Yugoslav dictatorships have glared at one another ever since their very inceptions.

Jugoslavia is a member of the Little Entente alliance, which also comprises Czechoslovakia and Rumania. These three states received war territories at Hungarian expense, and their compact calls for centralized staff-work and coöperation in diplomatic matters to consolidate their gains.

The Little Entente, in close accord with France, has played an important part in the League of Nations; and economic agreements are indicated as following military developments. Czechoslovakia supplies heavy industry, Rumania has wheat and oil, Jugoslavia enjoys farms and seaports; and the three countries have a combined population of more than 45 million, which constitutes a tripartite great power. Communism in Jugoslavia is almost non-existent, but sectionalism is a pressing national problem.

King:—Alexander I.

Area:—96,134 square miles, comprising the former Kingdoms of Serbia and Montenegro, and the Yugoslav provinces of Austria-Hungary. The area approximates that of Oregon.

Population:—13,930,000, of whom almost ten million are Slavs, about half a million each Germans, Hungarians and Albanians, and the rest Rumanians and Italians.

Capital:—Belgrade; population, 241,000.

R U M A N I A

DEMOCRATIC MONARCHY

RUMANIA SPEAKS a language which, more closely than any other tongue, approximates classical Latin. The national name is obviously "Roman"—and the Rumanian people claim descent from the Roman legionaries of Emperor Trajan, who once were settled in the Balkan area as garrisons against the eastern barbarians. Later there was considerable admixture of Slavic blood with Roman, but the Rumanians to this day are tremendously proud of their Latin lineage. There are also, in Rumania, German, Hungarian, and Jewish minorities who sometimes voice their religious complaints.

Rumania gained her freedom from the Turks in 1877, after four centuries of Mohammedan domination. She entered the World War in 1916, and although severely defeated by the Germans and Austrians, she was awarded Hungarian Transylvania and Russian Bessarabia as a reward for her wartime activities. Since the war, her relations with Hungary and with Soviet Russia have been of the worst. Rumania is a member

of the Little Entente, to which Czechoslovakia and Jugoslavia also belong. The Little Entente is in close alliance with France, and Rumanian relations with Poland are very cordial.

There are two parliamentary chambers, and taxpayers are voters. Most Rumanians belong to the Orthodox denomination, and there has been a great deal of anti-semitism. There is a strong Protestant religious minority, chiefly among the Germans and Hungarians. Rumanian sub-soil and forests were nationalized by the constitution of 1923; and many of the great landed estates have been subdivided among the peasants—especially if the land-owners happened to be Hungarian. There has been a great deal of graft in Rumanian politics and administration, the higher circles of society setting an extremely poor example for the lower.

Grain and petroleum are the chief Rumanian products, rich oil wells being owned by the government and by private capital. Salt mining has been a state monopoly for seventy years, and there are iron, copper, lignite, and natural gas in large quantities. Raising of livestock is an important branch of national industry, with horses, cattle, sheep, and pigs running into the millions.

There is a Rumanian army of 250,000 men, a strong air-force, and a weak Black Sea navy. The army is well equipped, but the human material is by no means equal to that of Rumania's Slavic neighbors in military value. King Carol II renounced his royal rights in 1926, living in exile abroad; but in 1930 he returned to Rumania and deposed his infant son, Mihai, who had been ruling under a regency in place of his father. Since that

time Rumanian royalty, with its comic opera aspects, has been in an uncertain position. The ruling-house is of German Hohenzollern origin.

King:—Carol II.

Area:—113,886 square miles—almost exactly that of Arizona. This area, owing to post-war accessions, is more than double that of pre-war Rumania.

Population:—18,000,000.

Capital:—Bucharest; population, 631,000.

B U L G A R I A

DICTATORIAL MONARCHY

BULGARIA, BEFORE the World War, was known as the "Prussia of the Balkans". Extremely progressive and well administered, her army and civil service were considered as models for the more backward European small countries. The Bulgarian people formed a simple peasant democracy, without titled aristocrats, and largely without a capitalistic middle-class. Russia was considered as a sort of national benefactor, because of Czarist assistance to the Bulgarians in their wars of independence against the Mohammedan Turks in the nineteenth century.

In the World War Bulgaria had the misfortune to join the losing side, and she suffered territorial amputations, indemnities, and armament limitation. Since 1918 the Bulgarians have led a checkered existence, with assassinations and secret political societies whose tactics have been violent and swift. Macedonian gangsters, who ardently desired union with Bulgaria, dom-

inated Bulgarian public life by threats and manipulations—but still the sturdy Bulgar breed plodded steadily on its way toward better times.

The Bulgarian government functions through a single legislative chamber, called the *Sobranye*; and the percentage of illiteracy is extremely low, denoting national progress. Agrarian communism is strong among many of the younger generation; and the capital of Sofia voted red in more than one radical post-war election. The communists, tolerated at best, were outlawed and thereafter operated underground. In 1934 a coup by the army instituted a stringent fascist dictatorship on Italian lines.

The Bulgarian chief-executive is styled “Czar”, and he is the only Slavic Caesar left at a national helm since the Romanoff dynasty passed out of Russia. The Orthodox church is firmly established on a national basis, although its influence is not overwhelming in public affairs. The Turkish overlordship, which lasted nominally until 1908, only served to strengthen Christianity in a land which hated the faith of Islam. Peace became the keynote of Bulgarian foreign policy following defeat by the Allies in the World War.

King:—Boris III.

Area:—39,824 square miles, or approximately the size of Kentucky.

Population:—6,000,000, of which about half a million are Turks.

Capital:—Sofia; population, 200,000.

G R E E C E

DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC

GREECE is the fatherland of western civilization, as developed in days of antiquity. From ancient Hellas came art, sculpture, and literature of the highest type; and also such conceptions as doctrinal democracy and personal freedom. Athens was a leading cultural center, particularly in the golden age of Pericles. Sparta was a military state of plain living and hard fighting, based sociologically upon an early species of communism which limited private property and utilized iron money. Greece defeated the despotic Persians in many battles before Christianity, and preserved her heritage of perfected philosophy from oriental influences.

Greece later became a part of the Roman Empire. (Greeks were so humane that they could not tolerate the Roman gladiatorial shows.) Then came the Turks who held Hellas under their sway until 1827, when Greece regained her independence from the Moham-medans. After centuries of Turkish rule she still retained her Orthodox Christian faith and much of her classical lore.

Ancient Greece was a land of republican city-states, generally speaking, but the restored Greece of 1827 was a monarchy with an imported Bavarian dynasty. Nearly a century later, in 1924, a national referendum brought a Grecian republic, in preference to royalty. Two parliamentary chambers together elect the president, as in France. There have been dictatorial phases in the brief history of this republican régime, but on

the whole Greece qualifies as a democracy in keeping with her noble tradition.

Following the Greco-Turkish war of 1921 came an exchange of minority populations between Greece and Turkey, in which nearly 2 million Greeks were expelled from Asia Minor and transplanted in Greece proper. The settlement of these wanderers was a great responsibility, but the League of Nations, the Red Cross, and the Near East Relief coöperated in the repatriation of the Asiatic emigres. Greece herself was enriched by their industry and intelligence, despite some initial friction.

In 1923 Greece ceded to Jugoslavia a free-zone in the Greek harbor of Saloniki, on the Aegean, by a half-century lease. Greece is today on good terms with her neighbors, save for Bulgaria, with whom there is a long-standing dispute over parts of Macedonia (Alexander the Great's old home). Greeks are not bellicose, nor is militarism a Grecian vice. Agriculture is the predominant occupation, for machine industry is hampered by a lack of coal and capital. Tobacco, currants, oil, and wine are exported; and the Greeks have always been a seafaring race, with their extensive coastline and numerous ocean inlets. The navy and merchant marine are efficient and well-handled, if not large.

Constantinople (Istanbul) is still mainly Greek, although it has been in Turkish hands since late medieval times. It was the capital of the Greek Byzantine Empire, which perished by the sword of Islam. Many Grecian leaders have not relinquished hopes for reclamation of the great city, still largely Christian and occidental. Greece is not administered without graft,

but the people are kindly and loquacious. Plato, Socrates, Aristotle, Phidias, and Praxiteles are ancestral names not soon to be forgotten. In Greece the present may not equal the past, but there is still an open future.

President.—Alexander Zaimis.

Area.—50,257 square miles. This approximates the area of Alabama.

Population.—6,480,000.

Capital.—Athens; population, 452,919.

ALBANIA

DICTATORIAL MONARCHY

ALBANIA is a land of Kentucky-like family blood-feuds, which rage for generations through the wild mountains. Two-thirds of the population are Mohammedan, the rest divided between Orthodox and Catholic Christians. Albania came under Turkish rule in the Middle Ages, and so continued until 1912. During the World War she was overrun by both sets of contestants; and after it she became an independent republic. In 1928 President Zog made himself King Zog I.

The government of Albania functions as dictatorial, with two parliamentary houses and rather irregular voting arrangements. Albania is in such close coöperation with Italy, across the Adriatic, as to be almost an Italian protectorate, and the mountaineers are unfriendly to Yugoslavia, their neighbor to the north and east. Albanians are magnificent warriors, and there is an Albanian army of 14,000 men—not to mention a

navy of six motor-boats on the Adriatic. Albania was an early member of the League of Nations.

Tobacco, timber, wool, and dairy products are the chief products of Albanian agriculture; and cattle-breeding receives special attention. The Albanian language is not a European one, and philologists are in studious disagreement as to its origin. But, as a friend remarked to the writer: "Italian gets you around".

King:—Zog I.

Area:—11,000 square miles (estimated), or slightly larger than that of Maryland.

Population:—1,000,000.

Capital:—Tirana; population, 30,000.

DANZIG

DICTATORIAL CITY-REPUBLIC

DANZIG, A medieval Baltic port sometimes in alliance with Germany and at other times with Poland, is now in the strange position of an independent city-state, in economic union with Poland and under the protection of the League of Nations. The city's population is 93 per cent German, but it was separated from the Reich after the World War in order to give the new Polish nation access to the Baltic.

There was almost continuous friction between Catholic Poles and Lutheran Danzigers, who desired a reunion with Germany on racial grounds. Economically, however, the trade union with Poland was advantageous to Danzig pocketbooks, with its brisk commerce

up and down the Vistula river and through the Polish corridor.

Danzig was an early Nazi stronghold, and a Nazi government took over the city before Hitler came into power in Germany. At one time, prior to his final triumph, Handsome Adolf even considered shifting the Nazi headquarters to Danzig as a safe refuge. Meanwhile Poland built a seaport of her own at Gdynia, a few miles to the northwest, which became a rival to the free city. Anti-Polish feeling was thereby intensified among the Danzigers.

Danzig has a parliament of two houses, with the president of the senate as chief-executive. There is a foreign high-commissioner, appointed by the League of Nations, who generally has taken the side of the Danzigers against the Poles. The Nazi city administration is in close touch with the Nazis of Germany.

Danzig, which for centuries was attached to the original Poland, has not found the reconstituted Poland an agreeable economic or racial partner. In the Polish war with Soviet Russia (1920), Danzig dockworkers went on strike to prevent the unloading of munitions for the Polish army. Poland has meddled in Danzig municipal affairs, but Poles are excluded from buying their way into the free city. In short, the lion and the lamb—even at the behest of Woodrow Wilson, Clemenceau, and Lloyd George—steadfastly refuse to lie down together. Or, perhaps, it is only the lamb that has refused.

President:—Herman Rauschning.

Area:—729 square miles (nearly $2\frac{1}{2}$ times the size of Greater New York City).

Population:—386,000 (census, 1924). 93% German, 6% Poles.

VATICAN

DICTATORIAL CITY-MONARCHY

BEFORE THE Protestant reformation (1517), Popes were the almost undisputed rulers of a united Christendom—which meant Europe, and spots of Asia and Africa and the New World. Until Italian unification in the nineteenth century, Popes ruled over central Italy from sea to sea, and over 3 million Italian subjects. By 1870 the papal states had become Italian, along with the city of Rome, and the Pope was limited to his Roman palaces by an unfriendly Italian government. But in 1929 an independent Vatican City was created by harmonious agreement with Mussolini, who wished to please Italian Catholics and to heal the breach between church and state in Italy.

Vatican City includes St. Peter's cathedral, Vatican palace, its gardens and museum, and neighboring buildings; and also thirteen buildings in Rome proper, which enjoy extra-territorial rights as Vatican property. Canon law and pontifical rules run the tiny city-state, which has its own postage stamps and coins. A cardinal serves as secretary of state.

There is a railroad station in the Vatican gardens, with a double-track which is 600 feet long. The Vatican railroad system has an engine and three cars, and connects with the Italian system in Rome. The Vatican has a wireless station, set up by Marconi in 1930. There is a population of 1,000, of which 700 are formally Vatican citizens.

Pius XI, elected 261st Pope in 1922, was the first

kindly dictator over Vatican City. In the realm of the spirit he was the leader of 330 million Catholics, while 700 Vatican citizens were under his temporal leadership. His diplomatic service consisted of papal nuncios, sent to many of the countries of the world as Catholic ambassadors.

Pope:—Pius XI.

Area:—108 acres.

Population:—1,006.

LUXEMBURG

DEMOCRATIC MONARCHY

LUXEMBURG is a grand-duchy, in economic union with Belgium. Before the war she was connected with Germany by a customs accord, but the German invasion of 1914 turned her against the Reich although she did not resist by military means. American troops liberated the little country in 1918, to the joy of the usually phlegmatic inhabitants.

The civilization of Luxemburg is French, although the Catholic population speaks a Germanic dialect. There are two legislative bodies, a council and a chamber, with universal suffrage for men and women. In 1919 a national referendum was held on the question of monarchy or republic, and a continuation of monarchy was decided upon. The reigning grand-duchess is popular.

Agriculture on the basis of peasant proprietorship is a leading occupation for Luxemburgers, and the iron

industry is well developed in the south under the aegis of French and Belgian capital. Both the French and German languages are official in the grand duchy, and there are two railroad systems to serve the small state. In addition to the former German and present Belgian connections, Luxemburg was at one time united to Holland, although not contiguous to the territory of that country. Luxemburg may be classed as a miniature edition of Belgium.

Grand Duchess:—Charlotte.

Area:—999 square miles, or slightly smaller than Rhode Island.

Population:—285,000. Of this number perhaps 35,000 are foreigners.

Capital:—Luxemburg; population, 54,000.

MONACO

DEMOCRATIC MONARCHY

MONACO is a tiny medieval survival, and a Mediterranean center for European gambling. The Monte Carlo casino is famous throughout the world for its scandals and suicides and bank-breaking; and the monied fashionables of many countries flock to its precincts for sure excitement and the gaining or losing of huge fortunes. Games of chance, with the accompanying tourist traffic, are the principal industry of the state, which is officially interested in the proceeds of the casino.

Bankrupt visitors are guaranteed their passage home by the casino management, and strict rules and regulations cover the activities of the clientele. Located on

the beautiful Riviera seacoast, a rocky peninsula jutting into the Mediterranean, there are also bathing and resort facilities. The tourists have an aptitude for making hay while the sun shines.

French is the language of Catholic Monaco, and there is a ruling prince or princess of ancient lineage. A one-chamber parliament is chosen by universal male suffrage, although before 1911 Monaco was an absolute monarchy. Monacans are skilled in ministering to the wants of the tourist trade, and have acquired a cosmopolitan outlook on life. There is such close connection with France that, should Monacan royalty be dethroned, political union with the French would probably follow quickly.

Scenery is beautiful, the natives are hospitable, and in this southern principality where every prospect pleases, only visiting man is vile. Perhaps Monaco should be defined as a plutocratic baccarat-trust.

Prince:—Louis II.

Area:—8 square miles, about one-eighth the size of the District of Columbia.

Population:—24,927.

Capital:—Monaco; population, 2,085.

LIECHTENSTEIN

DEMOCRATIC MONARCHY

LIECHTENSTEIN WAS involved in the World War on the side of Germany and Austria, contributing several men to the cause of the Central Powers. This independent state was founded early in the eighteenth century, and

is still prospering along agricultural lines. Corn, wine, and cattle are staple products of the upland Liechtensteiners.

Liechtenstein is situated between Austria and Switzerland, and she has been in economic union with the latter since 1923. There is a single parliamentary chamber, consisting of 15 members. They are elected by universal manhood suffrage through a system of proportional representation. The population is German and overwhelmingly Catholic.

Prince Francis I, a wealthy magnate who generally lives in Vienna, finances his little nation to such an extent that his loyal subjects are practically tax-free. The prince has no army, nor is military service ever obligatory for Liechtensteiners. They lead pacific lives, high up among their alpine pastures.

Prince:—Francis I.

Area:—65 square miles; about the size of the District of Columbia.

Population:—10,000.

Capital:—Vaduz; population, 1,700.

SAN MARINO

DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC

IN THE middle of dictatorial Italian fascism is the democratic republic of San Marino, which is said to date from the fourth century—the century in which the Roman Empire became christianized. Tiny San Marino (completely surrounded by Italian territory) has always maintained an independent existence, governed

in a council elected by popular vote of the hardy citizens. Two members of the council are appointed every six months to act as executive regents, just as ancient Rome was governed by two consuls during her stout republican days.

San Marino is blessed, in that she has no public debt. She is on cordial terms with Italy; and has extradition treaties with England, Belgium, Holland, and the United States. San Marino postage stamps are issued, and there is an accruing revenue from avid stamp collectors who purchase new specimens with haste. There is an electric railway, and a little national militia to defend the mountain state.

Liberty, equality, fraternity (as typified by San Marino) survive, strangely enough, in the very heart of a scientific modern dictatorship. The "Marinos" export wine, cattle, and building-stone from their hilly, equalitarian stronghold.

Area:—38 square miles (about one-eighth the size of Greater New York).

Population:—14,000.

Capital:—San Marino; population, about 2,000.

A N D O R R A

DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC

ANDORRA is a miniature state, situated in the eastern Pyrenees mountains between France and Spain, existing independently since medieval days. Her mountaineering people are a liberty-loving breed of herdsmen and to-

bacco farmers. Most of the Andorran roads are bridle-paths, and some of the villages are only temporary summer habitations erected for pastoral pursuits. Charlemagne, said to be the founding father, is the national hero.

The Andorrans speak Catalan, a cross between Spanish and French that is also used in Spanish Barcelona and Catalonia. They are good Catholics, and treat foreign intruders with considerable asperity. The president of France and the Spanish bishop of Urgel have joint supervision over the republic, which is governed by an elected council of 24 peasant members. There are two "syndics", who exercise executive powers like ancient Roman consuls.

Heads of families from six parishes did the voting until 1933, when a peaceful revolt of young men obtained universal male suffrage and, therefore, some representation in the council. A supreme court and an ecclesiastical court at Urgel are designated for final judicial appeal. The capital is at Andorra-la-Vieja, a "city" of 600 inhabitants. Here stands a government house which holds the legislative council.

There has been talk of turning Andorra into a gambling resort along the lines of Monte Carlo in Monaco, under the auspices of foreign capital. To date, Andorra has remained pastoral and unsophisticated.

Area:—191 square miles, or three times that of the District of Columbia.

Population:—5,231.

ICELAND

DEMOCRATIC MONARCHY

ICELAND is a Viking island of Scandinavian race and language. In 1918 she was granted virtual independence by the motherland of Denmark, with the Danish king retained as monarch of Iceland in the form of a connecting link. Iceland is in approximately the same relationship to Denmark that Canada, under her dominion status, is in to England.

Romantic in her traditions of sagas and ballads, Iceland has a hoary parliament that harks back to 930 A.D. It is called the *Althing*. There is universal suffrage for Icelandic men and women, whose religion is Lutheran Protestant. Danish citizens in Iceland have rights of citizenship, as do Iceland citizens in Denmark. The *Althing* is divided into two parliamentary houses, and proportional representation is an important factor in the functioning of Iceland democracy. Iceland has the oldest representative government in the world!

Education is compulsory, and in every community there is an efficient system of old-age pensioning to which all contribute between the ages of 18 and 60. Iceland has neither an army nor a navy, nor any fortifications, and her disarmament policy is in keeping with that of Denmark. Six-sevenths of Iceland is unproductive, but there is some agriculture, largely confined to the raising of hay, turnips, and potatoes. Fishing is the main industry, cod and herring being the chief scapegoats of Icelandic net-prowess.

Denmark takes general charge of Iceland's foreign

affairs, but recognizes Iceland as a sovereign state. Iceland enjoys an international position not unlike that of early Anglo-Saxon England. She is self-respecting, stay-at-home, and little known.

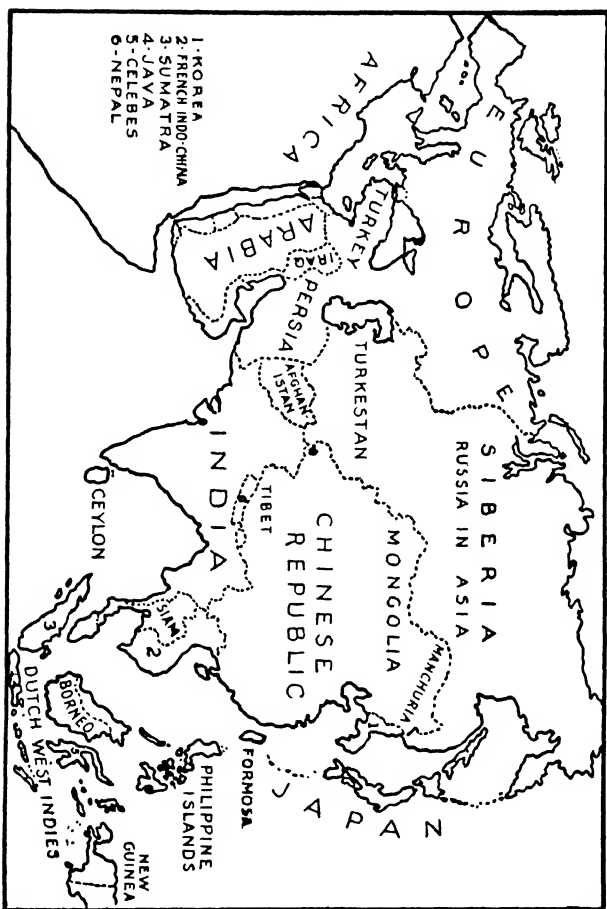
King:—Christian X of Denmark.

Area:—39,709 square miles.

Population:—110,000.

Capital:—Reykjavik; population, 30,000.

ASIA



J A P A N

DEMOCRATIC MONARCHY

JAPAN ENJOYS a western civilization, grafted upon an oriental stem. In her adaptation of European and American technological devices, she has excelled; and her modern progress dates only from the middle years of the nineteenth century. Prior to that time, Japan had been a hermit kingdom with closed doors; but the American Commodore Perry persuaded the Japanese to accept foreigners and modernization in 1853. By 1871 the Japanese feudal system had been abolished, and in 1904 a great victory was gained over Russia. This triumph over a European great power "put Japan on the map", and kept her there.

The regal Mikado, or emperor, is believed to be a personage of divine descent, and his subjects entertain for him feelings of semi-mystical veneration and loyalty. National patriotism is the real Japanese religion, and dying for Japan is considered the highest of honors. Suicide, if committed from patriotic motives, is a recognized and respectable end; and the warrior is exalted above the scholar and business man, in contradiction to the fundamental tenets of Chinese civilization. The Samurai class of Japanese nobility has many characteristics in common with the Prussian Junker caste—honesty, simplicity, courage, and fanatical de-

votion to the state, at times combined with a certain harsh brutality of the feudal sword.

Japan has been governed by an increasingly democratic constitution since 1889. There is a diet of two houses (peers and representatives), and since 1925 universal male suffrage has been in effect. Heads of noble families and the army and navy personnel are not allowed to vote. The two political parties are Seiyukai (conservative) and Minseito (liberal). Religious freedom is absolute, and Buddhism, Shintoism, and state shrines flourish peaceably side by side. Education is compulsory and rigidly enforced, and there are 46 universities and colleges of high rank. Woman suffrage is coming, endorsed by many Japanese statesmen and progressive intellectuals.

In Tokio there is bitter antagonism between the military and business elements of the nation. The soldiers are semi-feudal conservatives, who despise "trade" and capitalism as ignoble; while the merchants are inclined to be liberal and pacific in their international attitude. In Manchukuo the Japanese military have been known to favor foreign capital at the expense of their own capitalists, because of their hatred of Japanese big business. This quarrel between the aggressive generals and the moderate bankers and industrialists is the keynote of Japanese politics.

The Japanese empire consists of five main islands, a number of lesser islands, and Korea, Formosa, Pescadores, and Japanese Sakhalin. Japan also controls the Kwantung peninsula, leased from China for 99 years, and holds League of Nations mandates for some former German island-colonies in the Pacific. Japan is the

power behind the new state of Manchukuo, which is upheld by Japanese bayonets, brains, and finance; and she is reported to have Philippine and Siberian aspirations at the putative expense of America and of Soviet Russia.

Overpopulation and food-shortage are the greatest of Japanese problems. Social conditions are very bad, and many of the workers and intellectuals have turned to communistic ideas which, in Japan, are illegal. Soybeans, which have protein ingredients, are a staple food of the Japanese proletariat who can seldom afford meat; and Manchukuo has been utilized to feed Japan through vast soy-bean plantations. Japanese, en masse, dislike emigration and love their island homes. They cannot settle comfortably either in northern cold or in the tropics.

Most Japanese land is now tilled by peasant proprietors, although there are still some great agrarian holdings. Rice is the leading agricultural product, but other cereals, tobacco, and tea are grown as well. There is a wide variety of minerals, ranging from gold to petroleum, and coal and iron. Since 1900 Japan has developed an important factory system, which frequently undersells the products of Europe and America because of low standards of Japanese living and long hours of work.

In Japanese industry there are nearly 2 million proletarians, of which number the women are in a decided majority. Factory conditions are imperfect, and in some cases they recall the English industrial abuses of more than a century ago. Textiles, earthenware, lacquered ware, and silk goods are leading factory products; and

the Japanese have a high artistic sense which is displayed in many of their manufactures. Their industrialists have a veritable genius for ducking under foreign tariff walls.

The Japanese army is perhaps next to the French in excellence, and ahead of the French in *esprit de corps*. It is under-mechanized and perhaps a little old-fashioned, but its loyalty is extraordinary. It numbers approximately 300,000 men, with an air-force that is weaker than those of certain other great powers. The splendid Japanese navy is second only to the American and English fleets in strength. It has been limited, under international treaty restrictions, by a Big Three ratio of 5:5:3 as respects certain ship-categories. Sections of the Japanese army have been stationed in Manchukuo, and both the army and navy saw victorious service against China in 1932.

The Japanese are a proud race, largely Malayan in origin, and the American and Australian "yellow" exclusion laws have irked them. Their overpopulation has made emigration a vital question of economics, as well as honor; and their spirit of military prowess is characteristic of new and able states. Blending the age-old and the ultra-new with a rare skill, Japan has become a world power to be constantly considered and reckoned with. Hers is a medieval ideology, cloaked in all the mechanistic trappings of the twentieth-century machine age.

Japanese efficiency, like war-time Prussian efficiency, has become almost proverbial. Tokio, the Japanese capital city, is now the world's third greatest population center through a "Los Angeles" policy of suburb-

annexation, despite the terrible earthquake catastrophe of 1923. The enthusiastic Tokio booster-spirit is typical of all Japan.

Emperor.—Hirohito.

Area.—Japan proper, 148,756; including Korea, Formosa, Pescadores and Japanese Sakhalin, 260,738 square miles. Total area is slightly less than that of Texas.

Population.—Japan proper, 64,447,724. Empire total, 91,792,000.

Capital.—Tokio; population, 5,311,000.

CHINA

DICTATORIAL REPUBLIC

CHINA is an immense Asiatic entity which contains nearly a quarter of the world's population. She has the oldest of all national civilizations, and a great cultural pride which outlives bullying by foreigners and constant military reverses. China was under the famous Ming dynasty until the middle of the seventeenth century. Thereafter, she was ruled by the Manchu house till 1911—in which year occurred a Chinese revolution and the institution of a troubled republic.

She underwent a national revival in 1926, when the powerful Kuomintang party of Dr. Sun Yat-sen organized armies which marched north victoriously from their headquarters in the southern city of Canton, and captured Nanking. A Kuomintang nationalist government was set up in the latter city, with an anti-foreign policy of "China for the Chinese". Exploitation and aggression by European powers and Japan were stoutly opposed, as were extra-territorial treaties which guar-

anteed foreigners against trial by Chinese courts and gave them special privileges. China had suffered severely from foreign imperialism, which seized Chinese territory for naval-bases and "spheres of influence". Only America upheld Chinese integrity, in the interests of commerce, through the famous "open-door" policy.

Soviet Russia had been on close terms with the Chinese nationalists, but after the Nanking triumph of 1926 red help was summarily dispensed with—although socialistic influence continues in the councils of the Kuomintang. The Chinese north is militaristic, and given to banditry and ambitious war-lords who lead their own mercenary armies. The Chinese south is communistic, especially the red city of Canton and its hinterland. As a result, there have been almost constant civil wars since the 1911 revolution—with foreign interference as an added problem for Chinese leaders to deal with.

Confucianism, Buddhism, and Taoism are the leading creeds—Confucianism being an ethical philosophy of the highest and finest sort. China has always exalted the sage and the business man, and traditionally has regarded the soldier with disgust—a viewpoint not unlike that of America, and the diametrical opposite of Japanese ideology which glorifies the knightly warrior.

China is subject to five government councils—executive, legislative, judicial, examination, and control. The examination council determines qualifications for public service; and the control council exercises powers of impeachment and general auditing. Each council has a president and vice-president, and all five councils are

responsible to the central executive committee of the Kuomintang party. Chinese government thus contains certain soviet, or council, features borrowed from the neighboring U.S.S.R. There are 18 provinces in China proper, not including Manchuria (now the independent Manchukuo), Mongolia, and Tibet, with a marked weakness in centralized governmental control. The executive council is the supreme organ of the Chinese nationalist government. The Kuomintang is the only legal political party, its reverential attitude to Sun Yat-sen resembling that of the Russian Communist party to Lenin.

Education is making great strides in China, and many of the younger generation have been trained in American universities or in Moscow. Chinese girls are escaping from social domination, and take an active part in politics and reform. There are now 50 Chinese universities and technical institutes. Women students are admitted, and the undergraduates are extremely influential in the councils of the nationalist movement.

There are numerous Chinese languages and dialects, but one common picture-alphabet is intelligible to the users of many of them—making a fairly unified reading public. Foreign missionaries in China are of an especially high-minded sort; and these emissaries of religion, medicine, and education are prone to take the side of China against the machinations of their own imperialistic homelands. Chinese merchants are noted for their honesty, and Chinese students for their quick intelligence.

China is essentially agricultural, and land-tenure is generally freehold by payment of an annual tax. Hold-

ings are small, and irrigation is widely used. Grain and vegetables are common to the north, while in the south are indigo, rice, and sugar. Cotton, tea, silk, and pigs are other important products. In Shanghai and Canton are textile mills, and much of the capital comes from abroad—always a source of potential friction. There is flour-milling, and some iron works. China has very extensive coal deposits; and there is iron ore and petroleum, and more than half the world's supply of antimony. Poverty is very general among the Chinese proletariat, with floods and famines causing terrible loss of life at recurrent intervals. Here, as elsewhere in the Orient, there is vast overpopulation in many districts.

China is a respected member of the League of Nations, and entered the World War at the suggestion of the United States. Due to her weak central government and constant civil strife, the army is of uncertain size and is partially operated by militaristic individuals. It is certainly well over a million in strength, and there is a weak navy. In 1932 there was a *de facto* war with Japan, caused by an anti-Japanese boycott of Shanghai merchants in protest against the Japanese occupation of Manchuria. Japan attacked Shanghai by land, and sea, and air, and the Chinese 16th route army especially distinguished itself by its sturdy defense of the city. Japan set up an independent Manchukuo under her own control, and penetrated past the Great Wall of China which was designed to keep out "barbarians" in the Dark Ages.

Sectional strife is China's most serious problem, and the weakness of the Nanking government cannot always combat anarchy in the provinces despite the best

of intentions. Kuomintang decrees sometimes pass quite unheeded by remote masses of the population. Nevertheless, China has greatly progressed since 1926 in social matters; and the spirit of wise Confucius and of patriotic Sun Yat-sen, with his three-point program of nationalism, democracy, and socialism, is marching on. The Kuomintang has been conscientiously dictating in the future interests of democracy—with communism just around the corner. Chiang Kai-shek, former secretary to Dr. Sun, and other veterans of the great march on Nanking, have persevered with a high degree of national devotion.

President:—Lin Shen.

Area:—3,850,000 square miles, or nearly one-third greater than the area of Continental United States. This figure includes Mongolia (1,367,600 square miles) and Tibet (463,200 square miles), but not Manchuria (363,610 square miles).

Population:—450,000,000.

Capital:—Nanking; population, 584,000.

MANCHUKUO

DICTATORIAL MONARCHY

MANCHUKUO WAS the former Chinese province of Manchuria, whence came the Manchu dynasty which ruled China from the seventeenth to the twentieth centuries. She was always loosely governed by the Chinese central régime, and Manchurian territory was often overrun by bandits and freebooting war-lords who kept the province in a state of chaos. Millions of Chinese farmers migrated to Manchuria because of the excep-

tionally rich soil, and coal and oil shale attracted foreign capital and foreign political attention.

Manchurian railways were a source of constant friction between China, Japan, and Russia, each of which had interests involved; and Manchurian exploitation became of vital importance to over-populated Japan, which was in part dependent on Manchurian soy-beans as a staple of diet. Japanese capital was especially active in Manchurian development; and Manchurian disorders, connected in part with the endless civil wars of China, threatened Japan with economic distress and financial losses.

Japan launched a military action in Manchuria in 1931, which she justified as a defense of her legitimate interests. There was wholesale fighting in which the Japanese were victorious, and the Chinese were driven back into China proper. China appealed to the League of Nations for support; and the League proving sympathetic, Japan promptly withdrew her delegates from Geneva. In 1932 the Japanese set up Manchuria as an independent nation called "Manchukuo".

Manchukuo has a senate and a legislative assembly, chosen by universal male suffrage. Japanese advisers, to the number of 600, occupy key positions in the government; and Japanese troops are in partial occupation of Manchukuo soil. The emperor of Manchukuo is Henry Pu-Yi, once boy-emperor of China, who was ousted from the Chinese throne by the revolution of 1911. Since the Chinese emperors were originally Manchurian, Pu-Yi is reigning in the homeland of his mighty Manchu ancestors.

The Manchukuo population is, in the main, Chi-

nese. There are also Koreans, Japanese, and native Manchurians, but they are in a comparatively small minority. Mukden and Harbin are important cities. Soy-beans, wheat, iron, and coal are the chief products of Manchukuo, and Japanese capital continues as a paramount consideration in economic affairs. Japanese soldiers have driven out the native bandits, and stability and order have resulted. Chinese nationalism in Manchukuo is not sufficiently developed to bring about any marked popular feeling against Japanese hegemony. Nevertheless America, the League of Nations, and most of Europe upheld China in opposing the creation of Manchukuo independence in 1932.

Emperor:—Kang Teh (Henry Pu-Yi).

Area:—363,000 square miles.

Population:—25,000,000.

Capital:—Hsinching; population, 25,000.

I N D I A

DEMOCRATIC MONARCHY

INDIA IS in a state of flux. Since 1920 a nationalist independence movement, under Mahatma Gandhi, has rent the vast peninsula; and a war of passive resistance and non-coöperation has been directed against British rule and British commercial imports. Many of the Indian leaders, including the great Gandhi, have been in and out of jail; and riots and boycotts have continued intermittently with a world-wide moral effect.

India became British during the eighteenth century,

at the expense of the French who were driven out by a series of military defeats at the hands of England. The British East India Company administered India until a great mutiny of native soldiers in 1857, at which time the English government assumed Indian rule. The English king is *Kaisar-i-Hind*, or Indian emperor, and a viceroy represents him "at the front". In the English cabinet is a secretary-of-state for India, who looks after Indian affairs at London.

India is a federal state, with a central government consisting of two parliamentary houses at Delhi. There are 15 British-ruled provinces under governors and commissioners, mostly with their own legislatures. Voting privileges are complicated and vary widely; but the electoral base is gradually broadening, there is woman suffrage in several provinces, and in some respects India may be said to be approaching dominion status. Gandhi's nationalists have often boycotted Indian elections and Indian public offices to which they were elected.

There are in addition 12 autonomous native states, generally under native Indian princes. The central government of India does not directly interfere with these petty potentates, save in such matters as posts, telegraphs, customs, and currency. Their princely armies are limited, they cannot make war individually, and the central government may intervene in cases of misgovernment. English advisers are usually present at the native courts. In general, these native states are well administered.

There are three leading religions in India—Hindu-

ism, Islam, and Buddhism. The Hindus and Mohammedans are deadly rivals, and their mutual animosity has done much to promote English ascendancy in India. The Hindus have a caste system which further divides the population into clean-cut segments. This is based on the historical fact that early white invaders of India did not wish to mingle with the black aboriginal population, and tabus of caste were set up to preserve racial purity. There are 240 million Hindus, 80 million Mohammedans, and 12 million Buddhists by approximate count. Eight Indian language groups are divided into numerous subdivisions of speech and dialect.

There is an Indian army of 160,000 men, recruited largely from India's more warlike races, such as the Sikhs and Ghurkhas. Indian troops fought splendidly in the World War, under British and native officers. A British army of 60,000 is stationed in India, completely equipped with tanks, artillery, and aircraft. Rudyard Kipling's stories of British army life in India still hold good in most of their detail.

British soldiers are inclined to lord it over Indian soldiers, just as British officials often feel an inherent superiority to Indian officials. This has been a source of trouble in the past. The most courageous passive-resisters to British rule have frequently come from native pacifist sects, of which there are many, for the vast majority of Indians are unwarlike. Indian Mohammedans, because of their militant religion, are almost predestined soldiers.

Economically speaking, India has been the nucleus of the British Empire because of her immense riches

and resources. Two-thirds of the population is engaged in agriculture; and rice, wheat, and cotton are the most important products of Indian labor. Cotton-weaving is a leading industry, and the spinning of other textiles is utilized in the manufacture of silk goods, shawls, and carpets. Tea production employs a million persons. The English mills have long fed on Indian cotton, and India has been a dumping ground for a wide variety of English manufactures.

India shouldered half a billion dollars' worth of British war debt, and enterprising Englishmen have made vast fortunes in the Indian super-colony. India furnished 1,500,000 soldiers to England during the 1914-1918 period, and the oriental wealth of the peninsula has been an asset to the British Empire. India has everything from jungle tigers to snowy skiers, and from arch-militarists to ultra-pacifists. She has the richest potentates on earth, and the poorest peasants. But most extraordinary of all, considering her 222 languages, she has a strong feeling of national solidarity and an earnest desire for national independence. The westernized nationalism of Japan and Turkey has awakened resounding echoes below the Himalayas.

Emperor.—George V of England.

Area.—1,808,679 square miles. India's area approximates that of the United States, east of the Rockies.

Population.—350,000,000.

Capital.—Delhi; population, 450,000.

AFGHANISTAN

DICTATORIAL MONARCHY

AFGHANISTAN is an absolute little kingdom, stoutly independent in her Asiatic mountain fastnesses. She is a buffer state between Soviet Russia and British India, and through the long years she has learned to perfection how best to play off one of these titans against the other. The population is Mohammedan, and Islam forms the basis for legal procedure among the warlike tribesmen.

Afghan farms lie between the mountains, and the raising of fat-tailed sheep is an important occupation which supplies the natives with food and clothing. There are some small factories, at the capital city of Kabul, which turn out matches, arms, and leather goods.

A national council is based on districts and clans, and every four years a great assembly meets which represents the entire population. There is free elementary and secondary education. Afghanistan is subsidized by the reds of Moscow, is in offensive and defensive alliance with Turkey, and has agreements with British India. With Russia there is a friendly non-aggression pact of neutrality.

Fighting is the Afghan national specialty, to which Rudyard Kipling's "Tommy Atkins" can testify as a typical English soldier who still bears the scars. English rulers of India have had many sleepless nights caused by the "Afghan menace". There is an Afghan army of more than 50,000 men, with a small air-force

trained by European experts. Afghan soldiers wear steel "coal-scuttle" helmets made in Germany.

King:—Mohammed Nadir Khan.

Area:—245,000 square miles (estimated), almost as large as Texas.

Population:—7,000,000 (estimated).

Capital:—Kabul; population, 150,000 (estimated).

SIAM

DEMOCRATIC MONARCHY

SIAM is the land of the white elephant—a national fetish and symbol. Located in southeastern Asia, she is a buffer state between Indian Burma and the French colony of Indo-China. Her territorial and independent status has been guaranteed by England and France under a treaty of 1904.

English and American advisers have aided Siam in matters of finance and foreign relations. There are two councils, legislative and executive, and the king has had the power to appoint his successor. Siam has been liberalized by revolution since the World War. Buddhism is the prevalent religion of the semi-Chinese people.

Siam is a member of the League of Nations. She has an army of 16,000 men, with ten tanks and an aviation school. She has also a miniature navy. Agriculture is the almost universal occupation, with fishing as a minor alternative. Elementary education is compulsory, and the country is, on the whole, well administered. A new democratic constitution was provided for

in 1932, following a sudden coup d'état. Siam is divided into ten circles, each under a lord-lieutenant.

King:—Prajadhipok.

Area:—200,148 square miles (45,000 of which are in the Malay Peninsula), or about twice the size of Colorado.

Population:—11,506,000.

Capital:—Bangkok; population, 931,000.

TURKEY

DICTATORIAL REPUBLIC

THE TURKS were savage nomads who came out of Central Asia in medieval times, and adopted from the Arabs the Mohammedan faith. Splendid fighting men, the Turks gradually built up an enormous empire which included Arabia, Asia Minor, the European Balkans, Hungary, North Africa, Egypt, and the city of Constantinople, which became the Turkish capital. But the empire was badly ruled and became decadent, and Turkish conquests began to escape from the ruling house of Osman and its Sultans. Greece, Bulgaria, Rumania, and southern Yugoslavia became independent in the nineteenth century; and in the World War the Turks lost Arabia, Iraq, Syria, Egypt, and lesser areas. But, miraculously, the "sick man of Europe" did not die. Instead, he suddenly got well.

Post-war Turkey roused herself under the able leadership of General Mustapha Kemal, and became a republic. She dethroned the royal dynasty of Osman, and

moved the capital from European Constantinople to Angora, far inland among the inaccessible highlands of Asia Minor. There was a savage war with Greece in which Turkey triumphed (1922) and the Greeks were expelled from Asia Minor. Then came a complete program of radical reform and modernization.

In legal matters the Swiss civil code, the Italian criminal code, and the German commercial code were introduced by the Turkish nationalists of Mustapha Kemal. Polygamy was abolished, and women were brought out of their harems into everyday life. Islam ceased to be the state religion, although most of the Turks remained faithful to the creed of Mohammed. It was decreed that Turkish must be printed in the Latin alphabet, and the western calendar was introduced as a sign of the times. Government was through a one-chamber national assembly, under the dictatorship of President Mustapha Kemal, who was a progressive among progressives. There was universal suffrage for males over 18 years of age, with woman suffrage in municipal elections. Many elder Turks grumbled at such strange innovations (there were even lady policemen), but the dictator pushed ahead. The Greeks of Turkey were traded for the Turks of Greece, in order to establish a uniform population which could understand Turkish nationalism.

The main industry of present-day Turkey is agriculture, with tobacco, cotton, silk, figs, and olive oil among the principle products. Coal and metals are mined, and there is an increasing number of small factories under careful government supervision for the protection of workers. Turks are born fighters, and

there is an efficient army of 140,000 men. The Turkish navy, most of whose ships are very old, is not at all important.

Turkey is in close alliance with Soviet Russia, although at Angora there is only one political party (the government party) and communism is illegal. Turkey has established good relations with her former Balkan enemies, and still retains Constantinople (or Istanbul) with some adjacent territory, in Europe. Many critics have claimed that Turkey is the most ably run dictatorship in the world, with an intelligent westernization exceeding even that of Japan. No one calls Turkey a "sick man" any more.

Dictator:—Mustapha Kemal.

Area:—Though her boundaries are indeterminate and her territory is being constantly delimited, the area of Turkey is approximately 295,000 square miles, including 9,250 square miles in Europe. The area of Turkey in Europe and Turkey in Asia is larger than that of California and New Mexico.

Population:—14,000,000, one million of whom are in Turkey in Europe.

Capital:—Angora, 75,000. Constantinople, now called Istanbul, has a population of 700,000.

P E R S I A

DICTATORIAL MONARCHY

PERSIA is the home of long-haired pussy-cats, and of very profitable natural resources—especially in the matter of oil. Foreign nations have long contended with one another for oil concessions, and in the World

War the unhappy Persians were ruthlessly exploited by Russia, England, Turkey, and Germany. Persian neutrality was regarded as a scrap of paper by the benevolent Allies on the one hand, and by the public-spirited Central Powers on the other.

In classical times Persia was the mightiest nation in the world, and Persian battles with the Greeks fill many pages of ancient history. Marathon, Salamis, and many other famous battles were fought out by Persians and Greeks, and Xenophon's "Anabasis" and Alexander the Great's success were based on Greek invasions of the Persian realm. Later came Mohammedanism, and the religion of Islam persists in Persia to the present day.

Persia was an absolute monarchy until 1906. Since that time she has become somewhat liberalized, with palace revolutions and royal abdications. A republic was attempted, unsuccessfully, in 1914, and in 1926 a new line of hereditary Shahs was chosen by parliament. They promptly took office. There is a strong cabinet and a national assembly, with a theoretical exercise of male suffrage.

Azerbaijan, a Persian province endowed with valuable oil-fields, deserted the mother country in 1917 to become one of the self-governing states of Soviet Russia. Relations with Russia now are good, despite the spheres of influence into which Persia was divided by the Russians and English in 1907. England is not so popular. Agriculture is a leading occupation for Persians, along with stock-raising and the weaving of beautiful rugs and garments. Persian finance has been handled advantageously by an American administrator,

who supervised income and expenditure with fatherly skill and care.

Shah:—Riza Khan.

Area:—628,000 square miles, or three times the size of France.

Population:—9,000,000, of whom nearly one-third are nomads.

Capital:—Teheran; population, 320,000.

I R A Q

DEMOCRATIC MONARCHY

MESOPOTAMIA is an alleged site of the Garden of Eden, and the home of ancient civilizations. Today it is called "Iraq"—an Arabian state, delivered from Turkish misrule by the war. Iraq became a British mandate thereafter, and in 1932 achieved independence. British soldiers were mostly withdrawn, and the proud Arabs came into their own in Mesopotamia in that year.

There are two parliamentary houses, elected by manhood suffrage under the blessing of Islam and the holy prophet. Iraq is now a member of the League of Nations. There is oil and cotton, in which British capital is heavily interested. Arabic has supplanted Turkish in the schools, and a university was opened by the king in 1926. Iraq's capital is the romantic "Arabian Nights" city of Bagdad.

The local Arabs rendered yeoman service to England during the World War, and relations with John Bull have since been friendly. In 1921 Feisal was elected monarch of the new state by a rousing vote of 96 per cent. Iraq has done surprisingly well under his

rule. He paid a ceremonial visit to London in 1933, where he was acclaimed; but he died soon after, and was succeeded by his son Ghazi.

The Iraq army and police number 30,000 men, supplemented by English flying units and English military advisers.

King.—Ghazi ibn Feisal.

Area.—143,240 square miles—slightly less than that of Montana.

Population.—2,849,282. The population is predominantly Mohammedan.

Capital.—Bagdad; population, 300,000 (estimated).

ARABIAN STATES

DICTATORIAL MONARCHIES

THE CAMEL-RIDING Arabs are a Semitic people, and linguistic cousins to the Jews. They have contributed greatly to mathematics and the sciences, and in the Middle Ages the barbarous European knights garnered much from Arab learning and civilization during the Crusades. Mohammed and the cult of Islam arose in Arabia in the seventh century, and the Arabs became missionaries of the sword—spreading Mohammedanism across North Africa, into Spain and the Balkans, and among the untutored Turks. Later Arabia became a part of the Turkish Empire, but during the World War there were Arab revolts abetted by the English. Today there are four fairly important independent Arab states—Saudi Arabia, Yemen, Kuwait, and Oman.

Saudi Arabia is a kingdom consisting of the sultanates of Hejaz and Nejd. She is the leading Arabian state. Her administration is patriarchal and absolute, with Mecca—the holy city of Mohammedanism—as capital. The Saudi Arabian population numbers close to 5 million, and there is a little regular army of 1,000 men. Warlike Arabs do not, as a rule, need regulars to protect them, and tribal levies are the primary source of Saudi defense. There is a railroad line from Amman to Medina; but no proper roads lead across the sandy wastes of desert, although there are some crude tracks. The theocratic law of Islam is the common law of the land, and there are advisory legislative and municipal councils. Dates, fruit, grain, horses, camels, and sheep are the leading agricultural and pastoral products; and the Mohammedan tourist trade of pilgrims en route to Mecca is a source of income to Saudi Arabians.

Yemen is an imamate, located in the southwest of the Arabian peninsula between Asir and Aden. Her capital is Sana, and she has a population of 2 million. Yemen produces coffee, grain, and hides; and she is governed in patriarchal style by her Imam and his twelve sons.

Kuwait is a sultanate, independent, but subsidized by the British government. She extends from Iraq to Saudi Arabia, along the Persian Gulf, with a population of 50,000. Kuwait is under the sway of an eighteenth-century dynasty of sheiks, but an English political agent resides at the Kuwait court.

Oman is a sultanate of southeastern Arabia, with a population of half a million. Muscat is the capital, a city once famous for its commercial importance. Oman

has a strong Negro admixture in her population, especially in the cities, and dates and camels are the leading products of the state. As in Kuweit, there is a British subsidy for good behavior, and a British political agent who is influential in the councils of the ruling sultan.

Arabia is in a state of transition from nomadic life, as lived by the wild Bedouins, to technical activities in the larger and more civilized cities of the peninsula. The political boundaries of the Arabian states are still vague at many points, and the influence of England is felt by all of them directly or indirectly. With keen intelligence, natural hospitality, and a high sense of Mohammedan ethics, the Arabs, emancipated from Turkish exploitation, are gradually settling down into the prosaic twentieth century.

Rulers:—Saudi Arabia: King Abdul Aziz ibn Abdul-Rahman al Faisal a Saud. Yemen: Imam Yahya Mohammed Hamid ed-Din. Kuweit: Sultan Ahmed ibn Jobar. Oman: Sultan Seyyid Said ibn Taimur.

Area:—1,200,000 square miles (estimated), half desert, and slightly larger than Argentina.

Population:—10,000,000 (estimated). Most of the inhabitants are nomadic, and tribal organization is strong.

N E P A L

DICTATORIAL MONARCHY

NEPAL is an independent Himalaya-mountain state, situated between India and Tibet. Ghurkhas are the predominant people, and these warlike folk furnish the Indian army with many of its most valuable mercenary

soldiers. They specialize in the use of formidable knives. The army of Nepal totals nearly 50,000 efficient troopers. Nepal exports rice, hides, cattle, and grain. Buddhism is the chief religion, and pilgrims and shrines abound in this credulous country.

Slavery was abolished in 1924, but the rule of the Nepalese Maharajah is absolute. There is a 24-mile railway, opened in 1926. England makes an annual financial grant to Nepal for good behavior, and Nepalese trade is largely with British India. The freed slaves have received tracts of agricultural land. Mount Everest, highest pinnacle in the world, towers to a height of 29,141 feet; but there are fertile Nepalese valleys between the lofty ranges. The national policy is, in general, isolationist—but relations with England and with India have been harmonious over long periods of years.

Rajah:—Tribhubana Bir Bikram.

Area:—54,000 square miles; about the size of Florida.

Population:—5,700,000.

Capital:—Kathmandu; population, 80,000.

B H U T A N

DICTATORIAL MONARCHY

BHUTAN is situated in the eastern Himalayas, between Tibet and British India. Grains, cloth, and musk are her national products; and there are valuable forests. Defense is attended to by means of primitive castles,

and England keeps an attentive eye upon the foreign relations of the Bhutanese.

The people are Mongolian in type, and their nominal religion is Buddhist. They occupy themselves by propitiating evil spirits, and by reciting endless passages from their scriptures. There was a dual government, by clergy and laity, until 1907—when a Maharajah took control upon an hereditary basis.

England pays to the Bhutanese an annual subsidy of sizeable proportions—"on condition of good behavior". Bhutan generally behaves perfectly. She has been in close touch with English agents for more than a century and a half, and has learned how to profit.

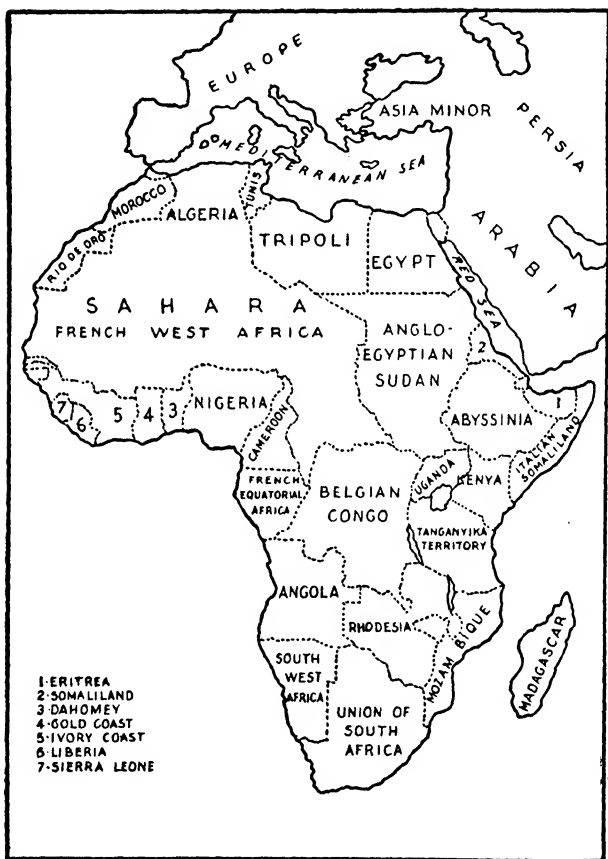
Rajah:—Jik-me Wangchuk.

Area:—17,750 square miles (estimated), or twice the size of Massachusetts.

Population:—250,000 (estimated).

Capital:—Punakha.

AFRICA



EGYPT

DICTATORIAL MONARCHY

ANCIENT EGYPT, under the Pharaohs, was the home of a remarkable culture which had marked influence upon the later culture of ancient Greece. The sphinx, the pyramids, the mummies, and an elaborate mythology come down to us as mementoes of an ancestral glory going back thousands of years. The Egyptian worship of Isis, Horus, and Osiris was a leading competitor of Christianity—to which it bore a close resemblance—in the first centuries after Jesus.

Egypt became a Roman province, long-nosed Cleopatra bloomed there, and later the Mohammedans swept the country under the green banners of Islam. Egypt became a Turkish annex, and so remained in name until the World War, when a British protectorate was magnanimously proclaimed. In 1922 Egypt became independent under a Mohammedan king, with England keeping a wary eye upon Egyptian foreign relations and the cherished Suez canal. Completed in 1869, the canal is 103 miles long and strategically connects the Mediterranean with the Red Sea. It is a handy short-cut to England's India.

There is a two-house Egyptian parliament, but the king initiates financial laws and otherwise proves himself indispensable to his people. Islam is the state re-

ligion, and Arabic is the state language; but there is religious and linguistic liberty for all races and creeds. The Egyptian army, numbering 14,000 men, is still under British control—and there is, in addition, a British army of occupation which approximates 10,000 of the genus Tommy Atkins.

The river Nile is the Egyptian life-giver, and irrigation is a national problem for all Egyptians. Cotton is a leading product of agriculture, and grain and livestock keep many “fellahins” busy. These workaday peasants number nearly two-thirds of the total population. There is a territorial dispute with England relating to the vast Sudan, which is inhabited by Rudyard Kipling’s famous “fuzzy-wuzzies”. It is a potential cotton area, where increased irrigation will bring profitable production. Extra-territorial rights protect the citizens of certain foreign nations from the jurisdiction of Egyptian courts of law, establishing in their place mixed tribunals with a more western viewpoint.

King:—Fuad I.

Area:—347,840 square miles (estimated). About the size of New Mexico, Arizona, and Colorado. Of this area, however, only some 12,000 square miles are cultivatable.

Population:—14,186,898.

Capital:—Cairo; population, 1,064,567.

ABYSSINIA

DICTATORIAL MONARCHY

ABYSSINIA (OR ETHIOPIA) is essentially feudal in its structure, and its monarch is a proud black emperor.

His royal race is reputed to claim the queen of Sheba as ancestress.

Here is an example of an African native kingdom which functions independently, having worsted Italy on the battlefield and other nations in the more subtle field of diplomacy. After the World War an attempt was made to introduce parliamentary government on a feeble scale, but the plan was abortive and ended in failure.

Since the fourth century the Abyssinians have been ardently Christian, in connection with the Alexandrian Coptic church. The army of 100,000 men is semi-organized, but swarms of primitive tribesmen supplement the regulars in time of war. Abyssinia is a member of the League of Nations. The people are of Negro and Semitic blood, intermixed. The slave trade is illegal, but domestic slavery is allowable under a current policy of gradual emancipation. Historic Christian Africa, black as coal, is holding to its native ways—and holding its own.

Emperor:—Ras Taffari Makonnen.

Area:—350,000 square miles (estimated), or larger than California, Oregon, and Washington combined.

Population:—10,000,000 (estimated).

Capital:—Addis Ababa; population, 70,000.

LIBERIA

DICTATORIAL REPUBLIC

LIBERIA was founded as an experiment in 1822, when philanthropic Americans who belonged to colonization

societies attempted to return some emancipated Negro slaves to their native continent of Africa. Liberia meant "liberation", and the capital was named in honor of the American President Monroe. In 1847 Liberian independence was recognized.

Since that time the small minority of American Negroes and their descendants have lorded it over great masses of black native tribesmen, untutored in American ways. Government is patterned after that of the United States, and there are two congressional houses. Voters must be of Negro blood, and owners of land. This latter provision excludes black tribesmen who lead a nomadic and communistic existence.

The official language of colored Liberia is English, and she is a member of the League of Nations. Most of the ruling class are Methodist or Baptist. There are no railways, and economic development has scarcely begun save in the field of rubber production. Even agriculture has been neglected, and the rich forests are largely unworked. There were charges of slave labor in connection with rubber-raising which led to League of Nations investigations. Meanwhile a few thousand Americo-Liberian aristocrats reign supreme along their section of the African west coast.

President:—Edwin J. Barclay.

Area:—42,000 square miles (estimated). About the same size as Virginia.

Population:—Between 1,500,000 and 2,000,000. Mostly African Negroes. Only 100,000 may fairly be considered to be civilized, among whom 12,000 are Americo-Liberians.

Capital:—Monrovia; population 10,000.

Remarks:—Since 1912 the control of the customs has been in the hands of a General Receiver (who assumes also the post of Financial Adviser), designated by the Government of the United

States. About 1,000,000 acres of land have been leased from the Liberian Government by a large American manufacturer for the extensive raising of rubber.

SOUTH AFRICAN UNION

DEMOCRATIC DOMINION

THE UNION of South Africa is a federated British dominion, organized in 1909. It is composed of the Transvaal, Orange River Colony, Cape Colony, and Natal. South Africa is bilingual, with Dutch and English as official languages, and there exists a keen racial rivalry.

Transvaal and Orange Free State were independent Dutch republics prior to 1900, in which year they were annexed by England in the Boer War. Cape Colony and Natal were earlier British possessions, in which there were more citizens of English than of Dutch origin. There are three times as many Negroes as Europeans within the dominion, which leads to racial discrimination and a color question similar to that in the southern United States.

Wheat and other grains are raised on the veldt, as well as livestock, wool, and cotton. Gold and diamonds are mined in large quantities, and the presence of these valuable commodities had much to do with the British annexation of 1900. Kimberley is famous for its diamonds, and the Rand district for gold. South Africa has seen hectic gold rushes in the past.

There is a royal governor with only nominal powers, and a parliament of two houses. Universal white suf-

frage exists for both sexes, and many Negroes vote subject to certain qualifications. Politics, as in most British dominions, focus around pro-empire and anti-empire groups—English South Africans being generally “pros”, and Dutch South Africans (*Afrikanders*) often “antis”. The Dutch language, as spoken in South Africa, is styled *Afrikaans*. Such famous *Afrikanders* as General Smuts and General Botha, who fought against England in the Boer War, became firm friends of the empire in later years; both being active during the World War, with Smuts distinguishing himself especially in the activities of the League of Nations.

Most South Africans are Dutch Reformed or Church of England in religion, with a liberal sprinkling of other Christian and non-Christian creeds. There are 100,000 Hindus and 50,000 Mohammedans, immigrants from India and very unpopular. Gandhi himself practised law in South Africa as a young man. South Africa is one of the least loyal of the British dominions, flies its own tricolor flag, and is strongly secessionist and nationalistic.

Area:—472,000 square miles.

Population:—2 million whites; 6 million blacks.

Capital:—Pretoria; population, 96,000. The seat of the legislature is Cape Town.

SOUTHERN RHODESIA

DEMOCRATIC DOMINION

SOUTHERN RHODESIA is a minor British dominion situated in the heart of Africa. She is named after Cecil

Rhodes, English empire-builder and exploitation expert, who was influential in bringing about the Boer War of 1900. Until 1923 Southern Rhodesia was governed by the British South Africa Company, but in that year she achieved dominion status within the British Commonwealth of Nations.

There is a governor-general to represent the English crown, and a one-chamber legislative assembly elected by universal white male suffrage and by white married women. Negro advisory councils represent the natives, who vastly outnumber Europeans, under their local chieftains. Educational facilities are surprisingly well developed, with 74 primary schools and 12 secondary ones.

Livestock-raising, fruit orchards, and gold mining are major occupations; and railway service and motor roads are arranged for economic service to Southern Rhodesians in their varied pursuits. The white population is largely of British origin; and the English crown may, in theory, disallow Southern Rhodesian legislation. Native blacks are subject to the same legal code as Europeans, except for certain restrictions relating to arms and alcohol.

To the north of Southern Rhodesia is the Zambezi river, and to the south is the South African Union. On the west is the Belgian Congo, and on the east is Portuguese East Africa.

Area:—150,344 square miles.

Population:—50,000 whites; 1,000,000 blacks.

Capital:—Salisbury; population, 30,000.

THE ANTIPODES



A U S T R A L I A

DEMOCRATIC DOMINION

AUSTRALIA IS a trade-union paradise, noted for her social legislation and her highly organized labor movement. Aside from Soviet Russia, she is probably the most socialistic country in the world. The Australians are purely British in origin, and there are rigorous Asiatic exclusion laws which prevent the influx of colored races. It is feared that "cheap" oriental immigration would lower the good wages of white workmen, who enjoy in Australia a markedly high standard of living.

Australia was originally a British penal colony, to which debtors, criminals, and rebellious Irishmen were sent for disciplinary purposes. In 1788 a British settlement was founded at Botany Bay, and during the early nineteenth century convicts and free colonists arrived in considerable numbers. A confederation of 6 Australian states was granted dominion status in 1901, under a governor-general who represented the English king. In 1851 there was a mighty gold-rush to Ballarat and Bendigo, which advertised the island-continent all over the world.

Australia has two parliamentary houses, elected by universal suffrage of men and women. The eight-hour day, minimum wage, arbitration of capital-labor dis-

putes, pensions and insurance, and popular referendum on public questions are important features of state and federal governments. Australia has often been referred to in British imperial slang as the "red dominion". Sheep-raising is the national occupation, but cattle-raising and dairying are well developed, as is wheat production. There are magnificent harbors, such as Sydney and Melbourne, each of which has a population of a million. The six Australian state capitals hold nearly one-half the Australian people. Gold, silver, lead, zinc, tin, copper, coal, and iron are profitably mined.

Australian troops fought well in the World War, mainly at Gallipoli against the Turks. Today there is a small Australian fleet, which is alleged to have more admirals than ships, and a militia in which service is compulsory. The British navy is a form of protective guarantee against the Orient, and its useful guardianship is perhaps Australia's chief reason for loyalty to the British Empire. The "red dominion" is a member of the League of Nations, and is especially friendly to the United States in popular sentiment. Australians, incidentally, grow to very tall stature; and the rugged "diggers" (as they call themselves) are rough and ready military men.

Australian wild animals are of great interest, for they include such outlandish creatures as the kangaroo, the wombat, the cute koala or teddy-bear, the emu, and bears and wolves that are *not* bears and wolves. Australia was a lost continent, and her natural fauna contains all manner of misfits and survivals dating back to early zoölogical eras. The only "rational" animals in the domain were brought in by white men. But if Aus-

tralian wild life is prehistoric, Australian social measures and the Australian attitude toward humanity are well ahead of the times. Naturalists and sociologists can both learn much from the sensible "diggers" of the Antipodes.

Area:—2,974,581 square miles (almost exactly the land area of the United States, excluding possessions).

Population:—6,623,754.

Capital:—Canberra; population, 7,325.

NEW ZEALAND

DEMOCRATIC DOMINION

NEW ZEALAND became a British colony in 1840, when the proud Maori chieftains finally consented to the sway of England. The large island had been discovered in the middle of the seventeenth century by the explorer Tasman, who found that the Maori tribesmen had clan organizations similar to those of the Scotch Highlands. The clans exist today, 20 in number.

New Zealand has an extremely high-grade British population, and is regarded as the most loyal of all England's dominions. She introduced many of the Australian social services, and was a pioneer in the woman suffrage movement—giving women the vote as far back as 1893. Dominion status, under a governor-general, was granted in 1907. There are two houses in the parliament, and universal suffrage for both sexes. The general tone of New Zealand politics is very democratic. Defense is secured by a voluntary militia, a small air-

force, and a navy consisting of two cruisers and two sloops.

Agriculture is the chief occupation of the New Zealanders; and grazing, wool production, dairying, and the mining of gold, silver, and coal keep the inhabitants busy. There are Asiatic exclusion laws, as in Australia, but the Maori population in the North and South Islands of New Zealand numbers 70,000. These Maoris are Polynesians, well thought of by the whites.

In the World War the New Zealanders distinguished themselves in coöperation with the Australians. They fought the Turks at Gallipoli and the Germans in France. Troops of the two dominions were nicknamed "Anzacs"—a contraction of Australia-New Zealand Army Corps. Anzacs are splendid physical specimens, accustomed to a wholesome outdoor life in a healthy climate.

New Zealand is 1,200 miles east of Australia, and the pair are therefore too far apart for union. New Zealanders are a little prone to scoff at Australians, in somewhat the way that Englishmen occasionally smile at Americans. England is inclined to regard New Zealand as a favorite daughter.

Area:—103,862 square miles (including "annexed" and "outlying" islands). New Zealand proper consists of North and South Islands and their adjacent islets; their total area is 103,285 square miles, or about the size of New York, Pennsylvania and New Jersey combined.

Population:—1,537,000.

Capital:—Wellington; population, 146,000.

